DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 119 142 CS 002 451

TITLE Reading Effectiveness Program: Elementary School Guide.

INSTITUTION Indiana State Dept. of Public Instruction, Indianapolis. Div. of Reading Effectiveness.

PUB DATE 74

NOTE 214p.; For related document see CS002452; Figures 2-4 may have poor reproducibility

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.83 HC-$11.37 Plus Postage

DESCRIPTORS Affective Objectives; Auditory Discrimination; *Beginning Reading; Elementary Education; Grouping (Instructional Purposes); Listening Comprehension; Oral Expression; Phonics; Reading Comprehension; *Reading Instruction; *Reading Interests; *Reading Programs; *Reading Readiness; Study Skills; Visual Discrimination; Word Recognition

IDENTIFIERS Indiana

ABSTRACT

Specific reading program objectives are included in this guide in the areas of prereading; word recognition; comprehension; study skills; and attitudes, interests, and values. Methods of determining reading ability by diagnosis and methods for estimating reading potential are discussed. Factors involved in early reading experiences which are discussed are auditory discrimination, visual discrimination, and the use of picture books and easy reading books. Approaches to reading instruction which are analyzed are the basal approach, the language experience approach, the individualized approach, the linguistic approach, the programmed approach, orthographic variations, the intensive phonics approach, and multi-media approaches. Suggestions are given on how to develop word recognition, comprehension, and study skills. The affective dimension of reading is carefully considered. Methods for developing and assessing children's interests and attitudes are explained. Also included are sections on program organization and evaluation. (MKM)

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reading effectiveness program / elementary school guide

Indiana Department of Public Instruction
Harold H. Negley, Superintendent
1974

CS 002 451

The Goal of Reading Instruction

Our Plan of Action for a State Reading Effectiveness Program is based on several almost self-evident propositions, including the following:

1. All individuals in a democratic society must have the opportunity to become functionally literate. The task of teaching individuals to read is a shared social responsibility.
2. Each individual is a unique person, has his own rate of growth and is affected by sociocultural determinates. Educational institutions have the prime responsibility for producing functionally literate individuals, but all institutions share in this responsibility.
3. Since reading is an integral aspect of learning, reading instruction must be a continuous process. Given an *effective, individualized program,* based upon *multiple approaches* in method, adults and children can learn to read.
4. At all levels of learning, each teacher must recognize the role of reading in his field and provide needed assistance.

We are enthusiastic about an effort which will mobilize the total resources available to a state to achieve a specific goal. But this program cannot succeed without the enthusiastic support of educators who are in daily contact with the children who need the help.

I pledge my help. I can be of assistance in mobilizing public support and in increasing available state resources. The real job, however, must be performed on a school-by-school, child-by-child basis. We ask educators, parents, boards of education, the public, to join us in this crusade.

If a partnership of parents and educators is forged that succeeds in solving this basic problem of reading, the children of Indiana will be assured the tools necessary to achieve a productive, satisfying life.

Harold H Negley

Harold H. Negley, Superintendent

Foreword

Education, as probably never before, has assumed added dimensions and relevance in a world of constant flux and change. Leaders and practitioners within the field have long since forsaken the notion that the educational environ is an isolate unto itself.

What once was considered "Buck Rogers" fiction has rapidly evolved into a somewhat frightening reality – an ever-shrinking, computerized, mechanized world. As such, educators are charged with the arduous task of maximizing the learning potential of each individual, of reaching what was once thought to be an unknown quantity – the self-actualization of each learner.

The program materials to follow are such an attempt. The concepts and activities presented are representative of a combination of methodologies and approaches which hopefully will lead to a keener understanding of those qualities necessary for effective educational leadership.

Barbara Pashos, Director
Division of Reading Effectiveness
Department of Public Instruction

Contents

Introduction 3

Section I Objectives 7
- 1. Reading Program Objectives 7

Section II Needs Assessment 21
- 2. Student Performance 23
- 3. Reading Potential 29
- 4. Survey of Personnel 33

Section III Early Reading Experiences 45
- 5. The Child Who Enters Kindergarten 47
- 6. Auditory Discrimination, Visual Discrimination and Learning Letter Names 51
- 7. Early Reading Literary Experiences 55

Section IV Instructional Methods and Materials 63
- 8. Approaches to Reading Instruction 63
- 9. Word Recognition 65
- 10. Comprehension 95
- 11. Study Skills 117
- 12. Reading in the Content Areas 123

Section V Affective Dimension of Reading 131
- 13. Overview, Objectives and Guidelines for Affective Dimensions of Reading 131
- 14. Assessing Children's Reading Attitudes and Interests 135
- 15. Developing Attitudes and Interests: Strategies and Techniques 143
- 16. Developing a Literature Program 153
- 17. Resources for Developing Attitudes and Interests 157

Section VI Organization for Reading 183
- 18. Administrative Organization 185
- 19. Classroom Organization 187

Section VII Management and Evaluation of the Reading Program 213
- 20. Program Monitoring and Record Maintenance 213
- 21. Evaluation of Students' Reading Abilities and the Total Reading Program 225

Glossary of Reading Terms 231

Publishers' Addresses 239

Introduction

Amid the increasing pressures for accountability, continuous progress and fail safe programs, it is an accepted proposition that every individual has the "Right to Read." In order for today's classroom teacher to effectively respond to these demands, he must have available resources and guidance in developing teaching strategies. The purpose of this guide is to provide such resources and guidance. The ideas and suggestions presented are intended to augment rather than displace the teacher's present reservoir of materials and resources.

In order for the teacher to provide an effective reading program, regardless of the approach adopted, that program must be carried out in a well organized and carefully planned manner. Such planning requires a variety of tools and techniques – tools such as assessment instruments, teaching materials, record and report forms; techniques such as teaching methods for the various reading program objectives; organizational plans for the effective management of students and facilities, and evaluation strategies for determining the overall effectiveness of the program. This guide is designed to provide these tools and techniques.

An effective reading program must be based on a well defined and clearly stated set of reading program objectives. This guide includes an example of a specific set of reading program objectives which may serve as a model for program design. Individual school systems may use these objectives advisedly, making alterations or extending areas that best enhance local needs. While the objectives may vary from one program to another, the critical factor is the commitment of educators toward accomplishing their objectives.

The guide is designed specifically as a practical aid for the teacher. The format was selected for its utility, and the content developed with objectives and activities designed to give the elementary teacher practical teaching ideas. Examples are provided to illustrate the types of materials and ideas described. The guide is not intended to be an end in itself. As meaningful supplementary material relevant to local needs is added, its utility and practicality increase.

The Indiana concept of what effective reading instruction should be relies heavily on the creativity and the unique characteristics of local school communities implementing the State Criteria for Excellence reading model. Thus, foremost concentration is on a variety of teaching/learning strategies and designs to fit individual needs and interests. The loose-leaf notebook was purposefully chosen for the Elementary Curriculum Guide because it lends itself to the flexibility and adaptability necessary for modification in meeting the needs of local school systems.

The guide includes the following sections, which reflect a continuous progress philosophy of reading instruction, a philosophy which will allow each child to progress at his own rate, with the instruction being modified accordingly:

The "Introduction" projects the intent and purpose for the guide.

Section I, "Objectives," includes a listing of objectives for 1) prereading experiences, 2) word recognition, 3) comprehension, 4) study skills and 5) attitudes, interests and values.

Section II, "Needs Assessment," provides a discussion and listing of the various types of standardized and informal tests. This section is designed to aid in the selection of the appropriate instrument(s) to assess and/or evaluate a specific purpose(s).

Section III, "Early Reading Experiences," discusses characteristics important to early reading: auditory discrimination, visual discrimination and learning letter names. Activities for developing each of these skills are presented.

Section IV, "Instructional Methods and Materials," is divided into six separate units: 1) prereading experiences, 2) word recognition, 3) comprehension, 4) critical reading, 5) study skills and 6) reading in the content subjects. Each unit includes an explanation of the various reading skills involved in each category followed by selected activities for implementing these skills. This section might be used as a format for organizing reading files. It is designed to encourage the addition of supplementary materials. Additional units, sections and objectives may also be included as needed.

Section V, "Developing Reading Interest, Attitudes and Values Through Literature," deals with the affective dimension of reading. Included in this section are guidelines for developing attitudes and interests as well as assessment techniques and practical strategies for instruction.

Section VI, "Organization of Reading Instruction," includes a discussion of administrative and classroom organizational patterns. Several grouping plans are included as well as examples of specific organization strategies. There are examples of learning centers, learning packets and learning contracts.

Section VII, "Management and Evaluation of the Reading Program," presents information which is designed to aid in total school reading program evaluation and management.

I Reading Program Objectives

A clearly specified set of program objectives is an important element in any effective reading program. Although it is to be expected that these objectives will vary somewhat from program to program, it is critical that they be clearly and explicity stated. The set of reading program objectives listed below is designed to suggest a format for stating program objectives. The specific objectives included cover the major reading areas of: (1) prereading, (2) word recognition, (3) comprehension, (4) study skills and (5) attitudes, interests and values.

PREREADING

1. Socialization – Group Activities
   The student will be able to cooperate and participate in group activities.

2. Socialization – Self-Concept
   The student will be able to view himself as a capable and important individual.

3. Auditory Discrimination – Familiar Sounds
   Given a situation in which his eyes are closed and a familiar sound is made, the student will name the sound.

4. Auditory Discrimination – Words
   After listening to a pair of words, the student will be able to state whether the pronounced words are the same or different.

5. Auditory Discrimination – Word Parts
   After listening to a pair of words, the student will be able to state which words begin alike, end alike or have the same sound in the middle.

6. Oral Expression – Interpersonal Communication
   Given a situation in which there is a need to communicate, the student will be able to orally express his ideas to others.

7. Oral Expression – Word Beginnings
   After listening to a word, the student will be able to pronounce another word which begins with the same sound.

8. Oral Expression – Rhyming Words
   After listening to a series of rhyming words, the student will state another rhyming word with the same sound pattern.

9. Visual Discrimination – Figures
   Given a group of figures, some of which are alike and some of which are different, the student will identify those that are alike.

10. Visual Discrimination – Letters
    Given several identical letters and one clearly different, the student will identify the different

letter.

11. Visual Discrimination – Words
Given a group of words, some of which are alike and some of which are different, the student will identify those which are alike.

12. Auditory – Visual Discrimination – Letter Identification
Given several letters of the alphabet, the student will be able to select specific letters named by the teacher.

13. Auditory – Visual Discrimination – Letter Names
Given visually a letter of the alphabet, the student will be able to name it.

14. Language Development – Spoken and Printed Words
The student will demonstrate that he knows the words he hears are the same words that are written in the books the teacher reads aloud.

15. Listening Comprehension – Story Meaning
The student will demonstrate the ability to listen to and comprehend children's books which the teacher reads aloud by retelling the story.

16. Listening Comprehension – Drawing Conclusions
The student will react to parts of a story read to him by the teacher by displaying knowledge, interest and attitudes toward the story parts.

17. Listening Comprehension – Drawing Conclusions
The student will be able to anticipate events in or endings to stories which the teacher reads aloud.

18. Following Directions – Oral Commands
Given an oral command, the student will be able to follow its directions.

WORD RECOGNITION

1. Sight Words – Picture Names
Given a group of objects or pictures and labels, the student will match each label with its corresponding object or picture.

2. Sight Words – High Frequency Words
Given common words selected from a list of high-frequency words, the student will recognize any word after a flash exposure.

3. Letter Function – Consonant and Vowel Identification
Given any letter of the alphabet, the student will identify it as being either a consonant or a vowel.

4. Phonics Analysis – Consonants
Given a word orally and a list of letters, the student will match the word's initial, medial or final consonant sound with its corresponding letter on the list.

5. Phonics Analysis – Consonant Blends

Given a word which begins with a consonant blend, the student will be able to name and/or write the two letters which comprise the blend.

6. Phonic Analysis – Phonograms
Given a common phonogram or word family, the student will be able to pronounce new words created by substituting various consonants or blends in the initial position.

7. Phonics Analysis – Consonant Digraphs
Given a written list of consonant digraphs and listening to a word pronounced orally, the student will identify the digraph which begins the word.

8. Phonics Analysis – Short Vowels
Given a word orally and a written list of vowels, the student will identify the short vowel heard in that word.

9. Phonics Analysis – Long Vowels
Given a word orally and a written list of vowels, the student will identify the long vowel heard in that word.

10. Phonics Analysis – Vowel Digraphs
Given a group of one-syllable words having a vowel digraph, the student will pronounce each word correctly.

11. Phonics Analysis – Schwa
Given a list of the words containing the *schwa* sound, the student will identify each vowel having that sound.

12. Context – Word Identification
Given a sentence in which a word has been omitted, the student will use the context of the sentence to determine the missing word.

13. Structural Analysis – Inflectional Endings
The student will be able to decode a word by identifying root or base words and endings which change the tense of verbs or number of nouns or which indicate possessives.

14. Structural Analysis – Prefixes and Suffixes
Given a list of prefixes or suffixes with their meanings and a list of root words, the student will add a prefix or suffix from the list to each word and write the meaning of the newly formed word.

15. Structural Analysis – Compound Words
Given a list of compound words, the student will identify the component parts of the compound words.

16. Structural Analysis – Contractions
Given a list of expressions such as "are not," "will not," etc., the student will write them as contractions and include their apostrophes.

17. Structural Analysis – Syllabication
The student will be able to use syllabication to break words into smaller units which he can pronounce and blend back into a word which makes sense to him.

18. Dictionary Usage – Pronunciation Key
    Given a dictionary and an unknown word, the student will use the pronunciation key to determine the way in which the word should be pronounced.

19. Application – Trade Books
    Given a trade book with limited and easy vocabulary, the student will read the book, making use of the word recognition skills he has learned.

COMPREHENSION

1. Vocabulary – Synonyms
   Given pairs of words, the student will identify those which are synonyms.

2. Vocabulary – Antonyms
   Given pairs of words, the student will identify those which are antonyms.

3. Vocabulary – Multiple Meanings
   Given a word of multiple meanings, the student will state two or three meanings of the word.

4. Vocabulary – Homonyms
   Given a series of words, the student will identify the set of homonyms contained therein.

5. Vocabulary – Hyperbole
   Given a passage containing a hyperbole, the student will identify the hyperbole.

6. Vocabulary – Personification
   Given a group of sentences, several of which contain personification, the student will identify the sentences of that figurative style.

7. Vocabulary – Simile
   Given passages containing similes, the student will identify each simile.

8. Vocabulary – Metaphor
   Given a passage containing a metaphor, the student will identify the metaphoric statement.

9. Vocabulary – Onomatopoeia
   Given a sentence containing onomatopoeia, the student will identify the onomatopoeic word.

10. Vocabulary – Colloquialism
    Given a selection containing colloquial expressions, the student will identify the colloquialisms.

11. Vocabulary – Slang
    Given a selection containing slang expressions, the student will identify the slang expressions.

12. Vocabulary – Suffix Meaning
    Given a list of siffixes with their meanings and a list of root words, the student will add a suffix from the list to each word and write the meaning of the newly formed word.

13. Vocabulary – Prefix Meaning
    Given a list of prefixes and a set of prefix word definitions, the student will supply the prefix

word having the same meaning as each definition by using the prefixes listed.

14. Context – Word Meaning
Given a sentence containing a word with an unfamiliar meaning, the student will use the context of the sentence to determine the word's meaning.

15. Context – Multiple Meanings
Given pairs of sentences containing the same word, but in which the word has different meanings, the student will identify the meaning of the word in each context.

16. Literal – Specific Information
Given a paragraph, the student will locate the sentence which answers a specific question.

17. Literal – Noting Detail
Given a picture missing an obvious detail, the student will identify that detail.

18. Literal – Reading for Details
The student will demonstrate his ability to identify details by listing a given number of specific facts contained in a given selection.

19. Literal – Recalling Sequence
After listening to a given story, the student will retell its events in sequence.

20. Literal – Determining Sequence
Given a group of pictures depicting a familiar series of events in scrambled sequence, the student will retell its events in sequence.

21. Literal – Main Idea
The student will select from a list of three statements the one which most closely describes the main idea in a given sentence.

22. Interpretive – Recognizing Emotional Attitudes
Given a short story, the student will locate and list the words which identify the main character's feelings.

23. Interpretive – Relationships
Given a selection of cause and effect relationships, the student will identify these relationships by matching each cause statement with its corresponding effect statement.

24. Interpretive – Character Identification
Given a list of characters from a specific story, the student will identify the characteristics of each as implied by the content of the story.

25. Interpretive – Character Reactions
Given a selection in which one of the characters demonstrates a definite reaction to another character or an event, the student will state the character's reaction and the possible reason for the reaction.

26. Interpretive – Character Analysis
Given a story in which there are two characters of widely different personalities, the student will identify and state the similarities and differences between the two characters.

27. Interpretive – Character Affect
Given a story in which the main character reacts in a variety of ways to different situations, the student will identify and state each reaction as being either reasoned or emotional.

28. Interpretive – Drawing Conclusions
Given a story without its ending and three different conclusions, the student will select the conclusion which best predicts the story's ending.

29. Interpretive – Predicting Outcomes
Given the first part of a story, the student will state what he anticipates the outcome of the story will be.

30. Interpretive – Sensory Images
Given phrases containing sensory images such as "silky fur," "bitter apples," etc., the student will identify the sense suggested by each phrase.

31. Interpretive – Generalization
Given a selection containing two or more ideas or aspects concerning a topic, the student will form and state a generalization about that topic.

32. Interpretive – Relevant Information
Given a prepared selection on a topic in which some of the information is relevant and some is not relevant, the student will list the relevant information.

33. Interpretive – Developing Solutions
Given a selection which is a mystery without the solution given, the student will develop and state a solution based on the facts presented in the selection.

34. Interpretive – Emotive Expressions
Given a list of emotive and informative expressions, the student will classify the expressions into the correct emotive or informative category.

35. Interpretive – Humor
Given a series of jokes, the student will identify the element of humor in each joke.

36. Interpretive – Plot
Given a story, such as a well known fairy tale, the student will identify the plot of the story.

37. Critical – Fact or Fantasy
Given an animal story in which the characters act like people, the student will identify those actions which are unrealistic for animals to perform.

38. Critical – Fact or Opinion
Given a group of sentences, some of which are facts and some of which are opinions, the student will state which are fact and which are opinions.

39. Critical – Controversy
Given a controversial statement, the student will locate and read information which supports or nullifies the statement.

40. Critical – Advertisement
Given an advertisement in which the purpose is to sell a product, the student will state his

reaction to the author's ideas in light of the "sales pitch" approach.

41. Critical – Moral and Value Issues
Given information on a subject involving a moral or value issue, the student will form and state a judgment concerning the issue and state the reasons for his judgment.

42. Critical – Judging Content
Given the title of a nonfiction book, the student will state what he would expect to find in terms of information in the book.

43. Critical – Judging Statements
Given a series of statements and a specific purpose, the student will select those statements that are important to the development of the purpose or topic.

44. Critical – Evaluating Information
Given a selection of information pertaining to one topic, the student will state which information is of enough importance that it should be retained.

45. Critical – Relating Personal Experience
Given a story in which one of the characters has a rather common experience, the student will verbalize personal experiences he has had that are similar in nature.

46. Critical – Author's Style
Given a group of paragraphs taken from new stories, one of which is written by a specified author whose style is familiar, the student will identify the paragraph written by that author.

47. Critical – Author's Mood
Given a selection or story that develops a feeling or mood, the student will state the mood the author is attempting to develop and the words the author uses to develop this mood.

48. Critical – Author's Attitude
Given a selection in which the author implies a definite attitude, the student will identify and state the attitude of the author.

49. Critical – Author's Qualifications
Given a short selection and the biographical data on different authors, the student will state which author would be most qualified to write the selection and why he feels that author would be most qualified.

50. Punctuation – Period
Given a selection to be read orally, the student will demonstrate his understanding that a period indicates the end of a sentence by dropping his voice on the last word and stopping before continuing on to the next sentence.

51. Punctuation – Question Mark
Given a selection to be read orally, the student will demonstrate his understanding that a question mark indicates that a question is being asked by raising his vocal inflection on the last word and then stopping.

52. Punctuation – Comma
Given sentences in which commas have been used to imply different phrasing, the student will verbalize the correct phrasing of each sentence and explain the meaning of each sentence.

53. Punctuation – Exclamation
Given a selection to be read orally, the student will demonstrate his understanding of the exclamation mark by reading the sentence in an excited tone of voice and then stopping before going on to the next sentence.

STUDY SKILLS

1. Work Skills – Following Directions
Given an oral command, the student will follow its directions.

2. Alphabetizing – Letters
Given a set of scrambled letters, the student will arrange them in alphabetical order.

3. Alphabetizing – Words
Given a group of words in random order, the student will arrange them in alphabetical order.

4. References – Dictionary Definitions
Given a dictionary and a list of six words, the student will locate their definitions and write a sentence using each word.

5. References – Dictionary Guide Words
Given a list of words, the student will identify the dictionary guide words for each.

6. References – Dictionary Variant Meanings
Given a dictionary and several sentences containing the same multi-meaning word in different contexts, the student will use the dictionary to identify the meaning of the word as used in each sentence.

7. References – Dictionary Pronunciation Key
Given the pronunciation key for the diacritical markings in a dictionary, the student will correctly pronounce a list of words containing the same diacritical markings.

8. References – Encyclopedia Guide Words
Given a specific topic, the student will locate the information in an encyclopedia and identify the guide words for the topic.

9. References – Encyclopedia Index
Given an encyclopedia index, the student will locate specific topics within it.

10. References – Encyclopedia Key Topic
Given a reading selection of factual material, the student will identify its key words which may be used to locate additional information in any encyclopedia.

11. References – Reader's Guide
Given several topics and the Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature, the student will locate at least two sources of information for each topic.

12. Library Skill – Card Catalog
Given a list of books, the student will locate each one in the card catalog of his school library.

13. Parts of Books – Table of Contents

Given a reading text, the student will demonstrate his ability to use the table of contents by identifying the pages on which a specific story begins and ends.

14. Parts of Books – Glossary
Given a textbook and a list of words found within its glossary, the student will locate the glossary and list the definition it gives for each word.

15. Parts of Books – Index
Given the index of a book, the student will locate specific topics within it.

16. Parts of Books – List of Maps and Illustrations
Given a list of maps and illustrations, the student will identify the page or pages on which a specific map or illustration may be found.

17. Parts of Books – List of Tables and Figures
Given a list of tables and figures, the student will identify the page or pages on which a specific table or figure may be found.

18. Parts of Books – Chapter and Section Headings
Given a book containing chapter and sectional headings, the student will locate specific, desired information in response to a guide question using these headings.

19. Parts of Books – Side and Paragraph Headings
Given a book containing side headings and paragraph headings, the student will locate specific, desired information in response to a guide question using these headings.

20. Parts of Books – Footnotes
Given a book containing footnotes, the student will demonstrate his understanding of the footnote by using the information it contains to locate the original source or additional information.

21. Newspapers – Index
Given a newspaper index, the student will locate specific information in the newspaper.

22. Telephone Directory – Specific Information
Given a telephone directory, the student will locate specific information within it.

23. Tables and Schedules – Time Table
Given a time schedule, the student will interpret its contents by completing an information table.

24. Graphic Materials – Maps
Given a map, the student will use its legend and key to identify any factual information it contains.

25. Graphic Materials – Globes
Given a globe, the student will interpret its configurations by answering specific questions on its content.

26. Graphic Materials – Diagrams
Given any diagram with an incomplete information chart, the student will interpret the diagram by completing the missing information on the chart.

27. Graphic Materials – Graphs
Given any graph, the student will interpret its information by answering questions on comparisons between specific portions of its content.

28. Graphic Materials – Models
Given appropriate information about a specific geographical area, the student will construct a model of the area in papier-mache.

29. Organizing Information – Outlining, Main Topics
Given an article, the student will outline in topic form its main points.

30. Organizing Information – Outlining, Subtopics
Given an article, the student will outline its contents in main topic, subtopic form.

31. Organizing Information – Outlining, Details
Given an article, the student will outline in main topic, subtopic, detail from the contents of the article.

32. Organizing Information – Paraphrasing
Given a selection of informative, factual material, the student will demonstrate his ability to paraphrase the information by stating the main ideas and some of the details in his own words.

33. Organizing Information – Summarizing
Given facts of information pertaining to one subject, the student will organize them by writing a short summary of their content.

34. Organizing Information – Classifying
Given two headings and a list of items, the student will classify each one under its proper categorical heading.

35. Organizing Information – Bibliographies
Given a book, the student will write its identifying characteristics in correct bibliographical form.

36. Reading Rate – Skimming
Given a reading selection, the student will quickly determine its general ideas by adjusting his reading rate to skim the material within a time limit.

37. Reading Rate – To Fit Purpose
Given a selection to read and a definite purpose for the reading, the student will adjust his rate of reading to fit the material and the purpose. This will be evident through his ability to discuss the set purpose.

INTERESTS, ATTITUDES AND VALUES

1. Awareness – Information
The student will be aware of the information gathering potential of reading.

2. Awareness – Enjoyment
The student will be aware of the enjoyment which can be derived through the reading of literature.

3. Awareness – Personal Growth
The student will be aware of the opportunities for personal growth which reading provides.

4. Interest – Information
The student will demonstrate an interest in using books and other printed matter as a source of information.

5. Interest – Enjoyment
The student will demonstrate an interest in literature being read to or by him.

6. Interest – Personal Needs
The student will actively seek out and examine books and other printed matter to explore their potential for fulfillment of a personal need.

7. Attitude – Recreational Reading
The student will frequently engage in recreational reading when faced with a number of alternatives for use of leisure time.

8. Attitude – Purposeful Reading
The student will frequently use reading as a means of gathering information, deriving knowledge and seeking understanding.

9. Attitude – Reading Ability
The student will actively participate in learning activities designed to increase his reading ability.

10. Value – Personal Purpose
The student will develop his own purposes for reading in relation to his personal value system.

11. Value – Literature
The student will identify and read specific literature which is related to his personal value system.

12. Value – Involvement
The student will develop a sense of identification and emotional involvement with literature.

13. Value – Use of Resources to Locate Literature
The student will effectively use various resources to locate literature related to his enjoyment and information needs.

section II
needs assessment

A basic premise in reading programming is that virtually all children can learn to read provided that appropriate methods and materials are used. Given this basic premise, our first task in meeting the goal of teaching all children to read is to conduct an assessment of needs. It is vital that all of the diverse needs of the school and students are included so that any new program to be designed will proceed logically from the recognized needs and will not be merely different from what went before.

Basically, needs assessment is an attempt to measure the gap between "what is" and "what should be." The "what is" includes the deficiency and ability levels of the students, including any physical, emotional and sociocultural factors which can have a bearing on their academic achievement. In addition to studying students and their achievement, we must look at the personnel of the school, the material and fiscal resources available, and any community resources and pressures which can affect the school's reading program.

When a school decides that it needs to examine its reading programs with the possibility of making changes, it is essential that everyone concerned be involved. The critical self-evaluation necessary can be a difficult and threatening experience unless teachers, administrators, specialists, children and parents are all aware that a needs assessment is not a "witch hunt" or an attempt to find someone to blame for the underachievement in reading of some children. An evaluation of the achievement level and specific reading deficiencies of children is necessary. An examination of the training, abilities and competencies of classroom and special teachers is necessary. The objective is to determine what and where the deficiencies are so that rationale and effective plans can be made to eliminate or minimize them while maximizing the strong points. All parties can be expected to perform better when they are involved in designing a program rather than having the program imposed upon them.

All of the areas of reading, including program planning, evaluation and implementation, overlap. The same is true of the needs assessment phase. It is presented here as though it is an isolated phase only for ease of exposition. In reality, one does a needs assessment when one looks at the gap between present materials inventory and required materials inventory in the program planning phase. Also, for example, one does a needs assessment during evaluation when a test score is compared with a desired goal or outcome. Theoretically, at the beginning of needs assessment we gather as much data as possible without evaluating it. The evaluation of the data is done at the beginning of the program planning phase when we list our identified needs in order of priority and look at alternative methods of meeting those needs. However, we are making value judgments (evaluation) by the very act of deciding which data should be gathered, what is important and what is not.

The following outline is presented to give an overview of needs assessment, after which the components will be discussed in more detail.

I. Student Performance

  A. Determine the present reading levels of children.
  B. Isolate the specific kinds of reading problems the children are having (e.g., phonics) and, at the level of the individual classroom, narrow down even further (e.g., blends).

C. Measure (or determine) the reading potential of the children.
D. Determine as nearly as possible the causes of underachievement.

II. Personnel

A. Inventory the present personnel in the reading program, including classroom teachers and reading specialists. This inventory should include their training, experience, abilities and orientation.
B. Inventory nonreading personnel who are available, e.g., psychologists, speech and hearing therapists, guidance counselors. This inventory might also include their knowledge of reading and the factors which can interfere with effective reading.

III. Present Reading Program

A. Location in the school (e.g., classroom, reading lab.)
B. The basic approaches used (basal readers, individualized reading, phonics emphasis.)
C. The time available for reading.
D. The type of classroom grouping and organization (self-contained, departmentalized, open classroom, team teaching, Joplin plan and other specialized plans).
E. The use of reading specialists (e.g., one-to-one remedial teaching, consultant to classroom teacher, resource centers).
F. Inservice training in reading for specialists and classroom teachers.
G. The present reading evaluation program, including record keeping patterns.
H. The impact on the reading program of other school programs (e.g., Title I and other "Title" programs, the use of aides, etc.).

IV. The School Plant and Resources

A. The size, location and resources of the school library.
B. The reading resources and materials – machines, audio-visual equipment available in the classrooms or elsewhere in the building.

V. The Availability of Fiscal Resources

A. Money available to the reading program from the local school budget.
B. "Title" monies.
C. Private foundations.

VI. Professional Resources Available

A. Specialized clinics, reading centers, colleges and university departments, private reading specialists, the Department of Public Instruction.
B. Consultant help available from sources similar to the above.
C. Mental health centers, psychologists, psychiatrists, private reading tutors, etc.

The above outline can be expanded or shortened to conform with the kind of needs assessment desired locally.

2 Student Performance

Data regarding the achievement levels of students can be gathered in several ways. Cumulative records, teacher estimates and checklists can be used as well as formal and informal testing. Generally speaking, the more sources of data available the greater the confidence can be placed in the results. During the data gathering phase of needs assessment, concern should be primarily with gathering together raw measurement data without doing a great deal of evaluation of it. The evaluation of the data comes when one is ready to analyze what he has and to determine a rank-order list of priorities.

A. **PRESENT STUDENT ACADEMIC STATUS.** First, a general *level* of achievement must be determined; second, any specific problem areas must be identified, and third, a determination of the possible reasons for deficiencies must be made.

1. **Group Reading Achievement Tests.** (Also known as group reading tests, survey tests, reading sections of achievement test batteries, standardized tests, norms referenced reading tests). The group survey test is the type most commonly used by school systems in their regular testing programs. Most such tests yield only one or two scores (vocabulary and comprehension) and provide norms in one or more of the following ways: percentiles, grade level equivalents, stanines, stens, deciles. Survey tests can be helpful when used for the purposes for which they were designed. Such tests show relative rather than absolute levels of achievement. That is, they measure the progress of a program or of children from year to year. When one is interested in determining the general level of a child's or a class's achievement, the survey test can be helpful. When a school system is planning to use the same test over a period of several years, it is often recommended that local norms be developed.

2. **Group Diagnostic Reading Tests.** These tests are also referred to as "analytic" tests or "inventories." The term diagnostic is used here since it seems to be the name most commonly used. It is likely, however, that one of the other terms is more accurate. Diagnosis ordinarily connotes a search for a causation or an explanation for a condition, and these tests are not designed for that purpose. They are analytic in that they measure more specific aspects of reading to tell what kinds of problems children are having. Most diagnostic tests take from 2 to 4 hours to administer, but they provide more information than the group *survey* tests, which require a shorter period of time for administration.

3. **Individual Diagnostic Tests.** These tests (and, again, the term "diagnostic" can be misleading) must be administered to one child at a time, with some skill and experience on the part of the examiner required. These tests give information about more specific deficiency areas than do the above, and, in addition, allow the examiner to observe the child's reading habits and skills more closely and to make judgments about aspects of a child's reading ability that are not so easily discerned in group situations.

4. **Criterion Referenced Tests.** Increasingly, test publishing companies are creating tests known generally as "criterion referenced." The other standardized tests mentioned above are "norms referenced." In a norms referenced test, the scores derived are relative – that is, they show how a child's score compares with that of other children who have taken the

test (the standardized group). A criterion referenced test is more closely aligned with an absolute measure – that is, we find out what skills a child does or does not possess regardless of what other children do. Such tests sometimes set certain standards of "mastery," however. For instance, a child must pass 3 of 5 items testing a certain skill in order to show that he has mastered the skill. The published tests could also be called analytic since they generally measure a large number of specific skill areas, a useful feature in program planning. Often, basal reading series include brief criterion measures to check a child's progress toward certain specified goals. Local schools can design their own criterion referenced tests which will measure progress toward the specific goals the school has set as its own. Commercially published criterion referenced tests and "kits" are available which contain pretests, post-tests and brief tests between to measure ongoing progress. Some of these also contain guides to all the major basal reading series to direct the teacher to appropriate text and workbook pages to strengthen needed skills. Some also contain suggestions for additional teacher activities.

5. **Informal Measurement Techniques.** For the purpose of needs assessment, this chapter has concentrated primarily on standardized tests since they offer quantifiable scores which are convenient for comparison and for planning. However, there are other techniques which should be used for their value in adding additional useful data. While often lacking the statistical reliability and sophistication of standardized tests, they can offer a great deal of pertinent information in a short time. In addition, informal tests have certain other advantages over standardized tests. Teacher-constructed tests can be geared specifically to the particular objectives of the local school system or classroom. They can be administered at any time, as often as indicated, without waiting for the regularly scheduled tests.

(1) **Informal Reading Inventories.** A popular assessment technique is the informal reading inventory. Unlike standardized tests, the informal inventory measures a child's performance without regard to the performance of others. Therefore, a more absolute, rather than relative level, is obtained.

The reader is referred to the sources cited in the bibliography for a more detailed exposition of the rationale and construction of informal reading inventories. Briefly, an informal inventory consists of several paragraphs of graded difficulty. The child reads each paragraph aloud while the examiner records his errors and asks questions to check comprehension. Four levels important in reading instruction are established using this technique. The criteria for each level varies somewhat among those who advocate such techniques, but roughly they are as follows:

1. *Independent Level:* The child pronounces correctly 95 per cent or more of the words in the paragraph and correctly answers 80 per cent or more of the questions asked. The independent level provides information to help in providing supplemental reading material, including material for reading for enjoyment.

2. *Instructional Level:* The child correctly pronounces 8 per cent of the words in the paragraph and correctly answers 60 per cent of the questions asked. In planning instruction, the most important of these levels is the instructional level at which the teacher will ordinarily be working with the child.

3. *Frustration Level:* The child pronounces fewer than 85 per cent of the words and answers 50 per cent or fewer of the questions. The frustration level

found gives the teacher an indication of where not to work because the material is too difficult for a given child.

4. *Listening Level:* The teacher reads the selection to the child who correctly answers at least 70 per cent of the questions about the paragraph. The listening level gives an indication of a child's reading potential.

Several reading series have an informal reading inventory which accompanies the series. A teacher can construct his own informal reading inventory by selecting brief reading selections from a graded basal series which is not currently being used and formulating questions on these selections.

(2) **Other Informal Techniques.** To ascertain a child's reading abilities, simple tests can be constructed for word recognition (in isolation and in context) as well as for comprehension.

To determine a child's vocabulary level, any of several published lists of words can be used. Comprehension can be tested by asking a child questions about a paragraph he reads silently or aloud.

In constructing an informal test, the key is the teacher's ability to isolate the particular skill he wants to evaluate and to place that skill in a hierarchy. Such skills, hierarchies and ideas for testing them may also be found in many of the texts listed in the bibliography at the end of this section.

Generally, the teacher is interested in testing two areas: word recognition (and word attack) and comprehension.

Comprehension. An example of subskills of comprehension measured are (a) finding the main idea of a paragraph, (b) determining the literal meaning of a passage, (c) recalling details, (d) making inferences. These subskills can be checked by having a child read a paragraph and then having the teacher ask pertinent questions to elicit responses requiring any of the above subskills.

Another technique used in many different forms has come to be known generally as the "cloze" procedure. It requires a student to fill in a blank with a missing word, letter or phrase, thereby achieving "closure."

The cloze procedure can be used both as a test of comprehension and as a means of emphasizing the use of context in decoding new words by one of several types of items.

1. A paragraph from the child's text may be used, with the teacher replacing every fifth or seventh (or some other number) word with a blank. The student reads the paragraph, filling in the blanks with the correct words. Several variations of this technique include:

   a. The bird ______________ up into the tree.

      In this example, the child may fill in any of several words, any of which could be correct as long as the "sense" of the sentence is preserved.

b. The bird ________________ up into the tree. Underline the word which best completes the sentence.

1. flew 2. climbed 3. jumped 4. sang

In this example, using a multiple choice approach, only one response is correct, but possible answers are provided, narrowing the range and making the item easier.

c. The bird ________________ up into the tree. Underline the word which best completes the sentence.

1. flew 2. flue

This approach can test a child's spelling ability and word recognition.

d. The bird f ________________ up into the tree. Underline the word which best completes the sentence.

1. frog 2. sang 3. flew 4. glided

The child is given choices but selects a word on the basis of context and the first letter. It may also be used without the multiple choice responses listed at all.

e. The bird – – – – up into the tree.

This adaptation gives clues as to how many letters the word contains. Another technique similar to the above (in that it uses words in context) is one in which the child is given a passage in which several words are used incorrectly. He proofreads the passage, crosses out the incorrect word and substitutes the proper word. The teacher's "error" may be an incorrect spelling, a word which makes no sense in the context.

Word Recognition. To check vocabulary, a standard word list can be used with the child either reading and pronouncing each word or additionally defining the word by supplying a synonym or antonym or using the word appropriately in a sentence. Moe's high frequency word and noun lists are included in the word recognition section of this guide. The Dolch word list is also valuable. Other sources include:

Johnson, Dale D. "A Basic Vocabulary for Beginning Reading." *Elementary School Journal,* Vol. 72 (October, 1971), 29-34.

Kucera, Henry, and Francis, W. Nelson. *Computational Analysis of Present-Day American English.* Providence, Rhode Island: Brown University Press, 1967.

For other lists, consult the reference bibliography listing following John's article "Should the Dolch List Be Retired, Replaced or Revised," *Elementary School Journal,* Vol. 74 (March, 1974), 375-80.

Brief tests of phonics or other skills can be constructed. For example:

Short vowel sounds: "Draw a line under the word I say."

1. big 2. bag 3. beg 4. bug

Consonant blends: "Draw a line under the word I say."

1. bake 2. rake 3. drake 4. brake

Other methods of assessing students' skills include checklists which can be used in the regular reading situations. It is useful to keep such lists on hand at all times so that skills can be checked off as they are mastered.

3 Reading Potential

Once it has been determined at what level a child is reading, it is necessary to arrive at a close approximation of his reading potential to determine whether he can do better. This is as true for a child reading above his grade placement level as for the child who is reading below his placement level. The reading potential of a given child may be determined by several methods:

A. **FORMULAS FOR DEVISING READING EXPECTANCY (OR POTENTIAL).** The Harris formulas and the Bond-Tinker formulas listed below both utilize mental age scores. It should be kept in mind that such scores should be derived from tests which do not require reading ability.

1. **Harris Formulas (Harris, 1970).**

(1) $$\frac{2 \text{ x mental age} + \text{chronological age}}{3} = \text{Reading Expectancy Age}$$

(2) Reading Expectancy Age – 5.2 = Expectancy Grade Equivalent

The Harris formulas are based on the idea that a child's Mental Age generally is a good indication of a child's reading potential. Some weight is given to chronological age, but the major emphasis is on Mental Age. The Expectancy Grade Equivalent is a device to convert the Reading Expectancy Age to an approximation of the child's grade level equivalent score. It is based on the premise that the average child is 6.2 years of age at first grade entry (6.2 – 5.2 = 1.0, Expectancy Grade Equivalent).

2. **The Bond-Tinker Formula (Bond, Tinker, 1957).**

$$\text{Reading Expectancy} = \text{years in school x } \frac{IQ}{100} + 1.0$$

In this formula, the basic premise is that a child should generally be expected to have the potential to read at a level commensurate with his Mental Age. In addition, however, this formula takes into account the number of years of formal reading instruction the child has had. When using the formula, do not count nursery or kindergarten experience as "years in school," but do include any grades repeated by the child. Thus, a child who has spent three years in school (he is now entering fourth grade) and who has an IQ of 90 would be expected to be reading at a 3.7 grade level (3 x .90 + 1.0 = 3.7).

3. **Tests of Listening Comprehension.** The "listening level" (also called Auding Age or Auding Level), as determined by an informal reading inventory or by a formal or informal test, refers to the child's ability to understand what is read to him. This level can be thought of as the level at which a child could read if he possessed the necessary skills.

It should be kept clearly in mind that what is being discussed here is "potential" which is not necessarily fully realized. Certain children are "penalized" by one formula or another if the results are taken too literally. For instance, a bright child entering school for the first time might have an expectancy level of second or third grade, although he has not yet begun formal instruction. Also, some slower children with IQs below average might be expected to achieve at a higher level than possible because they have been in school several years but have repeated one or more grades. As with the results of other techniques and tests, the widest possible range of data should be used to rule out such errors.

The advisability of using the concept of "reading potential" is questionable because of the errors which can be made. There is always the danger of the teacher expecting less and, as a result, receiving less from a child who attains a low expectancy score. Conversely, one might expect too much and apply too much pressure to the child who scores high. Overall, it is probably worthwhile to use such expectancy levels, particularly those obtained by informal listening comprehension tests, as a beginning guide. The teacher should be ready to abandon such expectancy scores when his daily work with the child clearly demonstrates that they are inaccurate.

B. **CHOOSING AND USING TESTS.** In deciding on evaluation instruments, the important thing to keep in mind is the relevance of the test for your purposes, particularly in the case of norms referenced tests. One should be aware that the standardization sample may not be representative of his group.

1. Look at such sources as the *Buros Mental Measurements Yearbooks,* which provide information and critical reviews of published tests. The *Standards for Educational and Psychological Tests* published by the American Psychological Association also contains information on choosing tests.

2. Secure specimen sets of tests you have in mind and study the manual carefully.

a. Look at the standardization groups used. If the populations used are intended to be nationwide typical samples, ask yourself how typical your group is and how typical your methods and materials are. Does the test measure the objectives your school system feels are important?

b. If "special" norms are offered for groups such as "Title One" students, private schools, etc., decide whether these norms are useful to you.

3. What kinds of scores are offered?

a. One of the most frequently used types of scores is the "grade level equivalent." Such scores are losing popularity since they can be misleading. It is difficult to determine what, for instance, a child in third grade ought to know. A score of 3.6 reflects what a child achieved on the test. It is a reflection of what the typical child did but does not necessarily reflect what a third grader in your school "ought" to do.

b. The entire range of scores of the standardization sample may be divided into 100 units called percentiles. A child who scores at the 63rd percentile has done better than 65 per cent of the children in the standardization sample. It does not mean that he has passed 63 per cent of the items on the test or that he has done better than 63 per cent of the other children in the class or school.

c. Since the percentile score is often a finer measure than is needed, the standard nine (stanine) score is being used increasingly. This divides the range of scores into nine, rather than 100, divisions. Stanines 7, 8 and 9 can be considered high; 4, 5 and 6 in the middle, and 1, 2 and 3, low. In some cases, there is a trend toward the use of stanine scores rather than IQs on group intelligence tests. This is a useful trend since the IQ often implies a precision which is not justified.

4. Is the test one which can be easily administered, scored and interpreted by those who will be performing those tasks?

5. Does the test provide information not easily obtainable by another means?

6. Remember that not all children will be measured accurately by tests. Some become "test sophisticated" and others are overly "test anxious."

7. When you are certain that a test score is invalid for any reason, be sure to note that fact when recording the score if it is necessary to record the score at all.

8. Tests are to be used for the benefit of the education of children. Any use which is harmful to children, their self-concepts or their educational progress is to be avoided.

4 Survey of Personnel

Any assessment of needs in reading should include strengths and weaknesses, and one of the present strengths can be the existing personnel. By reviewing transcripts of college training, one may find classroom teachers on the present staff who have had a great deal of training and experience in reading. These persons should certainly be included in the list of available resources when the time comes to plan a new reading program. It is not necessary to remove them from the classroom, but perhaps part of their time could be devoted to supervising, assisting or training other classroom teachers in reading methods. If a team teaching or "Joplin Plan" kind of arrangement is planned, these teachers may become team leaders or otherwise take a large part of the responsibility for the reading program.

All of the present teaching staff should be examined (by some kind of self-survey) to ascertain the various levels of abilities, training, interest in and attitudes toward the teaching of reading. From this kind of survey, one will be able to see what kind of inservice (or college) training will be needed to implement a successful program.

The available reading personnel (supervisors, remedial reading teachers and reading specialists of various kinds) should also be surveyed to determine their training, experience and particular areas of expertise.

In addition to the persons directly related to the reading program, it would be wise also to include in a survey any other personnel, including psychologists, guidance counselors, social workers and librarians, who could have special areas of expertise to offer to the program. Are there a sufficient number of such personnel? Have they been utilized as effectively as they might? How can their impact be maximized?

Other specialists or reading resources, including clinics, private practitioners and education departments of nearby universities, should be included as places to refer to as well as resources from which to draw for inservice training.

The availability of financial resources, including "Title" programs, the regular school budget, private foundations, service clubs and organizations and the PTA should also be listed. If an expensive program is contemplated, these additional sources of funds could be considered.

A thorough assessment of needs is essential from time to time in any kind of curriculum planning. Reading programs should not be planned in a piecemeal fashion or by adding innovations which appear to be "the answer." No one program will be effective for all children in all schools. A school may find, after its assessment, that no changes are needed. Another school may find that changes are needed, but that all of the necessary ingredients are already present or easily available. A third school may decide that extensive and expensive changes are indicated, and the needs assessment provides a basis for documenting such needs for presentation to the school board or an application for various "Title" or private foundation funds.

The essential consideration in reading (as with other educational programming) is an open mind in planning. Program planning should follow from the needs identified in the needs assessment. One does not decide what kind of program will be operated before gathering documentation to justify that particular program.

The process of needs assessment should be as extensive as the school system (or individual school) can reasonably accomplish. It need not be severely time consuming if all teachers and administrators are involved and areas of responsibility are assigned.

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REPRESENTATIVE SAMPLE OF READING TESTS

I. Group Reading Tests

A. California Achievement Tests, 1970, Ernest W. Tiegs and Willis W. Clark, CTB/McGraw-Hill, grades 1.5-12. Information below on Reading Section only; two sections: vocabulary (in context) and comprehension, percentiles and stanines.

1. Level 1, 40 minutes, grades 1.5-2
2. Level 2, 40 minutes, grades 2-4
3. Level 3, 45 minutes, grades 4-6
4. Level 4, 50 minutes, grades 6-9
5. Level 5, 50 minutes, grades 9-12

B. Comprehension Tests of Basic Skills, 1968, CTB/McGraw-Hill, grades 2.5-12 (grades 11 and 12 use supplementary norms from special study). Information below on reading section only: vocabulary and comprehension, percentiles, stanines, grade equivalents.

1. Level 1, 45 minutes, grades 2.5-4
2. Level 2, 52 minutes, grades 4-6
3. Level 3, 46 minutes, grades 6-8
4. Level 4, 41 minutes, grades 8-12

C. Development Reading Tests, 1955, 1970, Guy L. Bond, Bruce Balow, Cyril Hoyt, Lyons and Carnahan, grades 1-6.

1. Lower Primary Reading Tests, grades 1 through 2-1.

    a. Basic vocabulary
    b. General comprehension
    c. Specific comprehension

2. Upper Primary Reading Tests, grades 2-2 through 3, subtests same as above.

3. New Developmental Reading Test, grades 4 through 6.

    a. Basic vocabulary
    b. Reading to retain information
    c. Reading to organize
    d. Reading to evaluate-interpret
    e. Reading to appreciate
    f. Average comprehension

D. Gates, MacGinitie Reading Tests, 1926-65, Arthur I. Gates, W. M. MacGinitie, Teachers College Press, Columbia University, grades 1-12, seven levels.

1. Primary A, grade 1, two forms, 40-50 minutes; two scores:

    a. Vocabulary
    b. Comprehension

2. Primary B, grade 2; other data as above.

3. Primary C, grade 3; other data as above, 50-60 minutes; two sessions.

4. Primary CS, grades 2.5-3, three forms, 7-15 minutes; speed and accuracy.

5. Survey D, grades 4-6, 45 minutes; three scores:

    a. Speed and accuracy
    b. Vocabulary
    c. Comprehension

6. Survey E, grades 7-9, 44-60 minutes; two sessions; same scores as above.

7. Survey F, 1969-70, grades 10-12, 44-60 minutes; two sessions; same scores as above.

E. Iowa Silent Reading Tests, H.S. Green, et al., Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

1. Primary Reading Test, 1948, 1956, grades 4-8, four forms.

2. Advanced Reading Test, 1927-1943, grades 9-14, four forms.

3. Contents:

    a. Rate
    b. Comprehension
    c. Directed reading
    d. Word meaning
    e. Paragraph comprehension
    f. Poetry comprehension (advanced test only)
    g. Sentence meaning
    h. Alphabetizing (primary test only)
    i. Use of index
    j. Selection of key words (advanced test only)

F. Iowa Tests of Basic Skills, E.F. Lindquist and A.N. Hieronymus, Houghton-Mifflin, grades 3-9, four forms; vocabulary and reading comprehension sections can be administered separately (72 minutes for those sections); grade equivalent scores, grade percentile scores, grade percentile norms for school averages. One test booklet contains all tests for all levels.

G. Lee-Clark Reading Tests, 1958, J. Murray Lee and Willis W. Clark, CTB/McGraw-Hill, two levels, two forms.

1. Primer, grade 1, three scores, about 15 minutes.

    a. Vocabulary (two tests)
    b. Following directions

2. First Reader, grades 1 and 2, five scores, about 25 minutes.

    a. Two vocabulary tests
    b. Following directions
    c. Sentence completion
    d. Inference

H. Metropolitan Achievement Tests, 1970, Walter N. Durost, Harold H. Bixler, J. Wayne Wrightston, George A. Prescott, Irving M. Balow, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich. Three forms, six levels, standard scores, grade equivalents, percentile ranks, stanines (no grade level scores above 9.9). Also available as Metropolitan Reading Test.

1. Primer, K.7-1.4

    a. Listening for sounds
    b. Reading

2. Primary I, 1.5-2.4

    a. Word knowledge
    b. Word analysis
    c. Reading

3. Primary II, 2.5-3.4, 48 minutes

    a. Word knowledge
    b. Word analysis
    c. Reading

4. Elementary, 3.5-4.9, 40 minutes

    Subtests same as above.

5. Intermediate, 5.0-6.9, 40 minutes

    Subtests same as above.

6. Advanced, 7.0-9-5, 40 minutes

    Subtests same as above.

I. Sequential Tests of Educational Progress, STEP Series II, 1969, Educational Testing Service. Two forms, four levels, grades 4 to college freshmen and sophomores; reading sections only, 40 minutes, one score: Reading. Separate booklet available.

1. Level 4, grades 4-6

2. Level 3, grades 7-9

3. Level 2, grades 10-12

4. Level 1, grades college freshmen and sophomores

J. SRA Achievement Series, 1971, Louis P. Thorpe, D. Welty Lefever, Robert A. Naslund, Science Research Associates. Two forms, three levels, grades 1-9, grade equivalents, percentiles, stanines, raw scores, growth scale values, reading test. Separate reading subtest booklets available. Vocabulary and comprehension.

K. Stanford Achievement Tests, Truman, Kelly, Richard Madden, Eric F. Gardner, Herbert C. Rudman, 1964-66, Harcourt Brae Jovanovich. Grades 1.5-9.9, five levels, three forms, grade equivalents, percentile ranks, stanines.

1. Primary I, grades 1.5-2.4, 83 minutes
    - a. Word reading
    - b. Paragraph meaning
    - c. Vocabulary
    - d. Word study skills
2. Primary II, grades 2.5-3.9, 72 minutes
    - a. Word meaning
    - b. Paragraph meaning
    - c. Word study skills
3. Intermediate I, grades 4.0-5.4, 40 minutes
    - a. Word meaning
    - b. Paragraph meaning
4. Intermediate II, grades 5.5-6.9, 42 minutes

    Subtests same as Intermediate I.
5. Advanced, grades 7.0-9.9, 30 minutes

    Paragraph meaning

II. Group Diagnostic Tests

A. California Phonics Survey, 1963, Grace M. Brown and Alice B. Cottrell, CTB/McGraw-Hill. Grades 7 through college, two forms, 45-50 minutes.

1. Long-short vowel confusion
2. Other vowel confusion
3. Consonants: confusion with blends and digraphs
4. Consonant-vowel reversals
5. Configuration
6. Endings
7. Negatives and opposites; sight words
8. Rigidity

B. Doren Diagnostic Reading Test, 1956-73, Margaret Doren, American Guidance Service, Inc., Circle Pines, Minnesota. Primary and intermediate grades, no upper limit for diagnostic use, untimed, 1-3 hours, one form.

1. Letter recognition
2. Beginning sounds
3. Whole word recognition

4. Words within words
5. Speech consonants
6. Ending sounds
7. Blending
8. Rhyming
9. Vowels
10. Sight words
1. Discriminate guessing
2. Spelling

C. McCullough Word Analysis Tests, 1962, Constance McCullough, Ginn and Co., distributed by Western Psychological Services. Grades 4-6, untimed, percentile scores.

1. Initial blends and digraphs
2. Phonetic discrimination
3. Matching letters to vowel sounds
4. Sounding whole words
5. Interpreting phonetic symbols
6. Dividing words into syllables
7. Root words in affixed forms

D. Silent Reading Diagnostic Tests, 1955-70, Guy L. Bond, Bruce Balow, Cyril Hoyt, Lyons and Carnahan. Grades 3-6, 90 minutes (3 sittings), grade level equivalent scores.

1. Words in isolation
2. Words in context
3. Visual-structural analysis
4. Syllabication
5. Word synthesis
6. Beginning sounds
7. Ending sounds
8. Vowel and consonant sounds

E. Stanford Diagnostic Reading Test, 1966-69, Bjorn Karlsen, Richard Madden, Eric F. Gardner, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich. Grades 2.5-8.5, percentiles and stanines.

1. Level I: 2.5 to 4.5, 2 hours, 17 minutes (4 sittings)

2. Level II: 4.5 to 8.5, 1 hour, 31 minutes (3 sittings)

3. Scores:

    a. Reading comprehension
    b. Vocabulary
    c. Syllabication
    d. Auditory skills
    e. Phonetic analysis
    f. Rate of reading

III. Individual Diagnostic Reading Tests

A. Diagnostic Reading Scales, 1963-1972, George D. Spache, CTB/McGraw-Hill. Grades 1-8 and retarded readers in grades 9-12. One form.

1. Word recognition
2. Oral reading
3. Silent reading
4. Rate of silent reading
5. Auditory comprehension
6. Consonant sounds
7. Vowel sounds
8. Consonant blends
9. Common syllables
10. Blends
11. Letter sounds

B. Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty, 1937, 1955, Donald D. Durrell, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich. One form.

1. Oral reading
2. Silent reading
3. Listening comprehension
4. Word recognition and word analysis
5. Letters (identifications and matching)
6. Visual memory of words
7. Sounds (hearing sounds in words, in letters)
8. Phonic spelling of words
9. Spelling test

C. Gates McKillop Reading Diagnostic Tests, 1926-1962, Arthur Gates and Anne S. McKillop, Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia University. Grades 2-0 to 6-0, two forms, 30-60 minutes.

1. Oral reading
2. Words: flash presentation
3. Words: untimed presentation
4. Phrases: flash presentation
5. Knowledge of word parts
6. Recognizing and blending word parts
7. Giving letter sounds
8. Naming capital letters
9. Naming lower case letters
10. Nonsense words
11. Initial letters
12. Final letters
13. Vowels
14. Auditory blending
15. Spelling
16. Oral vocabulary
17. Syllabication
18. Auditory discrimination

section III
early reading experiences

Early reading experiences refer to those activities before the time when reading words are systematically introduced. Readiness for instruction is a concern of the teacher at all grade levels. The term reading readiness instruction, as it applies to the teaching of skills prior to formal reading instruction, has been replaced in this guide by the term early reading instruction.

5 The Child Who Enters Kindergarten

Kindergarten represents the first major influence upon the child outside of his immediate family.

A. **SOCIALIZATION**. It is desirable that all children acquire the following social skills during the early reading period:

- Respect for themselves as individuals.
- Willingness to act independently.
- Respect for other individuals.
- Pride in their own accomplishments.
- Ability to cooperate.
- Eagerness to learn more about their world.

All of the other aspects of early reading discussed in the sections which follow are also facets of the socializing process.

B. **EXPERIENCE**. Children who enter school have many experiences in common. They know something about their family, home and community. Even if they come from economically disadvantaged homes, they have experienced many things vicariously through the medium of television.

To increase students' stock of common experiences the teacher can do several things:

- Take an inventory of each child's experiences.
- Guide all children through common experiences by taking them on field trips or by creating in-class activities in which all students participate.
- Provide time for discussion and presentation of experiences.

These activities are essential in expanding a child's understanding of the world in which he lives.

C. **EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT**. The child is much less self-centered in kindergarten than he was during previous years. His self-control of emotions is limited. Friendships are often stronger as he learns to cooperate with his peers. Language develops into an important means of self-expression. His life is very much adult-dominated, and he seeks the approval of his parents rather than his peers. It is not uncommon for the kindergarten child to have a strong attachment to his mother.

The teacher must establish an environment of further emotional development by:

- Providing opportunities for the child to succeed in both independent and cooperative endeavors.
- Leading the child to become an inner-directed individual.
- Making use of every opportunity to reinforce good behavior and good work.

D. **INTELLECTUAL DEVELOPMENT**. Closely related to the child's language development is his intellectual[1] development. Language and intellectual development occur as the child thinks about his experiences and can begin to attach names to his actions, surroundings and experiences. It is important to foster further intellectual abilities in all children by:

- Providing worthwhile first-hand experiences.
- Developing a setting which arouses interest in learning.
- Challenging a child through materials that are within his range of interest and ability.

E. **INTERESTS**. Most children of kindergarten age are interested in creating things. Through interaction with the class a teacher can determine the interests of a student or a group of students. From this interaction the teacher can provide opportunities for children to:

- Draw or paint pictures.
- Construct buildings.
- Observe nature.
- See films or listen to stories about other countries.

F. **LANGUAGE**. The child who enters kindergarten can speak over 2,000 words. This same child can listen to and understand thousands of words which are not yet a part of his speaking vocabulary. The language of the kindergarten child is rather complex with complete sentences of 10 words or more being common.

While the kindergarten child's oral language is adequate for most of his communication needs, it must be noted that many language concepts are not known. The child needs opportunities to:

- Listen with purpose.
- Hear and use new words related to experiences.
- Talk about ideas, feelings and experiences.

1. **Articulation**. By the time the child has reached 4 years, he can produce all but four or five sounds; these sounds (the sounds which are represented in writing by *r, l, th, wh* and *tl*) are mastered by most children by age 6 or 7, but some children are unable to produce one or more of them until age 8. The child gradually develops the ability to discriminate the gross sounds, and then, through continued listening and speaking, he can both hear and produce the sounds. The child can auditorily discriminate many sounds which he cannot orally produce.

2. **Vocabulary Growth**. Between a year-and-a-half and 5 years of age, listening and speaking vocabularies expand greatly. Upon entrance to first grade, the child can listen to and understand between 10,000 and 20,000 different words. This same child can speak between 2,000 and 15,000 different words. Rarely in the first two years of reading, writing or spelling instruction will he encounter a word that is not in his speaking vocabulary.

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[1] Intellectual development is sometimes referred to as cognitive development.

3. **Grammar and Usage.** The child's first efforts at sentence construction result in what is often referred to as telegraphic speech. In telegraphic speech the child leaves out words – usually the least important words. Thus, "Mommy is driving the car" becomes "Mommy drive car" for the 2-year-old child. Word order and content words are maintained, and words omitted are usually structure words. Meaning is conveyed.

As the child is able to synthesize his knowledge of vocabulary and his ability to arrange words properly, he develops a knowledge of grammar. The child masters most of the essentials of English grammar by his 4th birthday. Refinements in language use continue throughout a child's elementary school experience.

The child's usage of words and terms will reflect his background. He will learn that there are levels of usage, some of them appropriate for play or home and some appropriate for school.

4. **Expressing Ideas.** Kindergarten children should have daily opportunities to talk to their peers in the classroom. This opportunity for talking allows for continued oral language development. The teacher can observe the child's language and note problems in articulation and usage. The written word should not replace the child's oral language activities.

6 Auditory Discrimination. Visual Discrimination and Learning Letter Names

A. **AUDITORY DISCRIMINATION.** The ability to discern differences between or among the phonemes of a language is known as auditory discrimination. Skills under the heading of auditory discrimination include those dealing with:

- Initial consonant sounds
- Final consonant sounds
- Medial consonant sounds
- Beginning vowel sounds
- Medial vowel sounds
- Blending
- Rhyming

Normally, children acquire the ability to discriminate among similar sounds at a very early age. The ability to auditorily discriminate among sounds is an essential prerequisite before the student is able to use phonics. Therefore, the prereading program should provide sufficient experience to insure that the child develops proficiency in auditory discrimination.

1. **Assessment**. The assessment of gross auditory discrimination skills may be accomplished by asking the child to tell whether two spoken words are the same or different. For example, the teacher may ask if "boy" and "jungle" or "candy" and "carriage" or "booklet" and "booklet" are the same or different. The teacher may continue such activities to determine if the child can make more subtle distinctions as would be required with "band" and "hand" or "boy" and "bay" or even "men" and "man."

Most of the commonly used reading readiness tests contain one or more subtests on auditory discrimination. Published reading readiness tests are identified in the section on needs assessment (pp. 21 - 42).

2. **Special Skills.** Because rhyming is so easy to teach through the use of nursery rhymes, it is taught early. However, as an aid to learning the phonics skills necessary to decode words, the ability to make discriminations in the initial position of words is more important. While a variety of auditory discrimination activities are recommended, it is helpful for the teacher to stress those that deal with initial sounds.

3. **Selected Activities.** To provide practice in auditory discrimination activities, the teacher may wish to use some of the following exercises:

Directions. When dismissing students for recess or lunch, give directions which provide practice in discriminating between like and unlike sounds. For example, the teacher might say, "All students whose names begin like Mary can line up."

Milk carton sounds. Staple shut the top of a half-gallon milk carton and cut two holes in one side, one above the other. The child holds the milk carton so that one hole is over his ear and the other near his mouth. Any sounds or words he says will be amplified and very isolated from external noises.

Rhyming word puzzle. Divide the chalkboard or gameboard into squares. In each, illustrate two rhyming words, labeling one picture in each square. Have the child fill in the blanks with the rhyming word illustrated by each picture.

Cops and robbers. Each student is given a red stop sign made from construction paper. The teacher is the robber and the players are policemen. The children are to hold up their stop signs when they hear the robber's sounds in the words pronounced by the teacher. A certain sound is designated by the teacher before the start of each game.

Thumbs up. Using a series of sets of words which sound the same or nearly the same, ask the children to indicate by "thumbs up" that the two words are exactly the same word and by "thumbs down" that the words do not sound the same.

B. **VISUAL DISCRIMINATION.** Normally, children can discriminate among visually similar figures such as words and letters by the age of 4.

1. **Letters and Words.** The best types of visual discrimination exercises for children in the early reading stages are those which deal directly with letters and words since, in the reading act, the discriminations must be made among letters and words. Exercises which require the matching of letters or words are recommended and are easy to construct. Similarly, exercises which require the identification of a letter or word that is different from the others in a group are also good.

2. **Reversals.** In the early learning of letters and words, it is not uncommon for a child to mistake *b* for *d*. And, in the writing of young children, words often appear incorrect because the child has difficulty discriminating among some of the visually similar letters.

Reversals in reading and writing are not uncommon through grade two. If they persist beyond the second grade, the teacher may wish to consider identifying the letters which are often confused and to prescribe corrective exercises.

3. **Selected Activities.** Many reading readiness workbooks provide exercises in visual discrimination. In addition to these, some of the exercises teachers may wish to use in the classroom are:

Matching words. Separate two sets of cards containing several pairs into two decks, placing one card of each pair in each deck. Spread one deck of cards face up on the table so that each card can be seen. The second deck of cards is placed in one pile, face down on the table. The child turns up one by one the cards from this pile and matches them with an up-turned card.

Same or different. Cut out four copies of each letter of the alphabet using different colors for each letter. Paste four different letters along the edge of a large card. The remaining letters are pasted on smaller square cards. The children are to match the letters on the small cards with the letters on the large card.

Sentence scanning. Have pupils scan sentences to find all the words that begin with the same letter. This activity can be modified by having children scan short paragraphs to find words that are the same.

Worksheet. Prepare a worksheet listing two parallel columns of words in which the same words are used but in different order. The students may draw lines connecting like words in the two columns.

Worksheet. To provide practice in identification of likenesses and differences in letters of the alphabet, write a letter on the left hand side of the paper. Write several letters beside it, one of which is the same. The child's task is to look at the first letter in each row and then find another one just like it and draw a circle around it. Words may be used instead of single letters.

Letter matching. Construct several sets of letter flash cards and provide each child with a set containing five to 10 letters. The teacher exposes a card for a few seconds and then removes it. The student must then select a matching card from his set.

C. **LEARNING LETTER NAMES.** It is important that students know most of the names of the letters of the alphabet before instruction in the word recognition skills is begun. When students can identify letters, the teacher can call attention to distinctive features of words by naming the letters. For example, it is easier to discuss the differences between the words *grandmother* and *grandfather* if students know the names of the letters *m, f, o* and *a*. Furthermore, the learning of sound-letter relationships (phonics) is impossible unless students know the written referent of a spoken letter.

1. **Sequence.** The alphabetical order may be as appropriate as any other sequence. Children have little difficulty learning the "ABC Song," which may help them learn the letter names. For the child who enters school with no knowledge of letter names, the easiest letters to learn are the letters which compose his name, and the teacher should teach those letters first.

2. **Selected Activities.** To provide practice in recognition of letter names the following activities are suggested:

Letter to letter. Give each child a picture outline. He must connect the letters in alphabetical order so that the picture can be completed.

Moon and stars. Make a large moon on which all of the capital letters have been printed. Underneath, make 26 stars and print one lower case letter on each. Students match the capital letters on the moon with the corresponding stars by attaching yarn from letter to letter.

Match game. Make several sets of alphabet cards, each containing a single letter. Each child is dealt some cards, which he places face down in front of him. Each player turns up a card at the same time, and if his matches one of the others, he must say "match." He then says the letter and gets the other person's card. The player with the most cards at the end of the game is the winner.

Throw away. Make a set of cards, each containing a letter of the alphabet. Deal five cards to each player. When the teacher says a letter name, each student checks to see whether he has a card with that letter written on it. If he does, he may discard that card in the throw away pile. The first person to get rid of all his cards wins.

Alphabet relay. Divide the class into two teams and ask one child from each team to come to the front of the room. Then, show a card containing a letter of the alphabet. The first child who says the name of the letter wins a point for his team.

Tic-tac-know. Divide a square into nine blocks and write a letter in each small block. The child closes his eyes, and the teacher or a friend moves his finger in any direction over the letters, coming to rest on one letter as the child recites "Tic-tac-know, there I go." He then opens his eyes and names the letter his finger lands on.

Checkers. Prepare a checkerboard with every other square filled in with a letter. Place the checkers on the board as for a regular game of checkers. The regular rules for checkers are followed, but the student must also name the letter in the space he intends to move to.

Word toss. Divide a large sheet of paper or plastic into 26 squares and write a different letter of the alphabet in each block. Standing several feet away, the students take turns tossing a bean bag onto the sheet and naming the letter on which it lands.

7 Early Reading Literary Experiences

Early reading literary experiences refer to all experiences with books – alphabet books, nursery rhyme books, picture books and others – magazines, and even cereal boxes, that the child has had prior to formal instruction. These experiences with printed materials should begin long before he enters school. Parents' reading of nursery rhymes or bedtime stories are important literary experiences for the young child. The answering of questions regarding labels, signs and bulletin boards are also important experiences.

The skillful teacher has many opportunities to enhance a child's understanding of language through a variety of prereading literary experiences. The rationale for such instruction and some suggested activities follow.

A. **MATCHING ORAL AND WRITTEN LANGUAGE.** It is necessary to help children establish a "match," or a relationship between the words they hear and know and those same words on paper. The best means of helping children acquire the "match" between their oral language and book language is to have the children listen to stories read aloud.

The reading of stories to children should begin the first week of school whether it be kindergarten or grade one. The stories should be about interesting topics using words already familiar to the child. This type of experience will enhance early reading achievement.

B. **BOOKS TO BE READ ALOUD.** Reading aloud to kindergarten and first-grade children should be a daily occurrence. With carefully selected picture books, the teacher can read the story and share the pictures with the students. He may wish to summarize parts of the story or ask students to react. He may even ask the students to anticipate story endings. The discussion should be short enough that it does not interfere with the story line.

Several good sources of books for primary children are available. One of the best is *Picture Books for Children* (Cianciolo, 1973), which contains reviews of approximately 400 picture books for elementary students. Thirty books are recommended here as a "starter collection" for the teacher who is seeking books for children in the early reading stage. These books are also excellent reading for the first- or second-grade child who has gained some independence in reading. The books and their respective authors are as follows:

Alexander, Martha. *No Ducks in Our Bathtub*
Alexander, Martha. *Nobody Asked Me if I Wanted a Baby Sister*
Anderson, Hans Christian. *The Emperor's New Clothes*
Bemelmans, Ludwig. *Madeline's Rescue*
Brown, Marcia. *Once a Mouse*
Burton, Virginia. *Mike Mulligan and His Steam Shovel*
Butterworth, Oliver. *The Enormous Egg*
Byars, Betsy. *Go and Hush the Baby*
Clifton, Lucille. *Don't You Remember*
Eastman, Philip. *Are You My Mother*

Fatio, Louise. *The Happy Lion*
Flack, Marjorie. *Angus and the Ducks*
Freeman, Don. *Flash the Dash*
Gag, Wanda. *Millions of Cats*
Heibrener, Joan. *Robert the Rose Horse*
Ipcar, Dahlov. *A Flood of Creatures*
Keats, Ezra Jack. *Peter's Chair*
Keats, Ezra Jack. *Whistle for Willie*
Kessler, Ethel. *Slush, Slush*
Kuskin, Karla. *What Did You Bring Me*
Lipkind, William. *Finders Keepers*
Massie, Diane. *Briar Rose and the Golden Eggs*
Mayer, Mercer. *Mrs. Beggs and the Wizard*
McCloskey, Robert. *Make Way for Ducklings*
Rockwell, Anne. *The Awful Mess*
Sendak, Maurice. *Chicken Soup With Rice*
Suess, Dr. *And to Think That I Saw It on Mulberry Street*
Waber, Bernard. *Ira Sleeps Over*
Wolkstein, Diane. *The Cool Ride in the Sky*
Zion, Gene. *Harry the Dirty Dog*

MATERIALS

The entries listed here are a representative sample of workbooks, kits, games and multi-media activities designed to provide practice on some of the essential prereading skills.

Bennet, May. *Sound Tunes Kit*. Freeport, New York.

Gifford, Margaret. *Learning the Letters*. Cambridge: Educators Publishing Company.

Junior Listen – Hear Classroom Package. Chicago: Follett.

LaCoste, Roberts. *Patterns, Sounds and Meaning*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1971.

Match and Check. Glenview: Scott, Foresman and Company.

Sights and Sounds. New York: Random House.

Skillstarters. New York: Random House.

Starter Set. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

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Cianciolo, Patricia Jean, editor. *Picture Books for Children*. Chicago: American Library Association, 1973.

Downing, John and Thackray, Derek. *Reading Readiness*. United Kingdom Reading Association Monograph. London: University of London Press, 1971.

Durkin, Dolores. *Teaching Them to Read*, second edition. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1974.

Hardy, Madeline; Stennett, R.G., and Smythe, P.C. "Development of Auditory and Visual Language Concepts and Relationship to Instructional Strategies in Kindergarten," *Elementary English*. (April, 1974), pp. 525-532.

Ilg, Frances L., and Armes, Louise Bates. *School Readiness*. Evanston: Harper & Row, Inc., 1965.

Russell, David H., and Russell, Elizabeth F. *Listening Aids Through the Grades*. New York: Teachers College Press, 1959.

Spache, Evelyn B. *Reading Activities for Child Involvement*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1972.

8 Approaches to Reading Instruction

The differences among the major approaches to the teaching of reading lie mainly in the area of beginning reading instruction. The major approaches will be described here with special emphasis on the means by which the word recognition skills are taught.

A. **BASAL APPROACH.** The basal approach is the most common approach to the teaching of reading. Generally, programs are constructed so that through the use of the basal readers, workbooks and other related materials, students are given ample opportunity to learn word recognition skills in a variety of ways. Since there are approximately 15 publishers of basal readers, there are differences in the sequence of skill development which must be noted if one is selecting basal readers for reading instruction.

B. **LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE APPROACH.** The language experience approach to the teaching of reading uses the child's oral language as the basis for reading instruction. In the initial stages, the teacher writes while the child tells about his experiences. Students may tell stories on tape or write their own story. The recorded story then provides the words for instruction. It is a whole-word approach, and there is no predetermined sequence or emphasis in the teaching of word recognition techniques.

C. **INDIVIDUALIZED APPROACH.** In the individualized approach, most of the materials used for instruction are published materials of many types. Proponents of this approach generally do not believe there is a definite sequence in the introduction of word recognition skills. However, accurate record keeping is needed when this approach is used, and the teacher should indicate the skills that a student has mastered on his individual record.

D. **LINGUISTIC APPROACHES.** The traditional linguistic approach to the teaching of reading has strongly emphasized decoding – often with no concern for comprehension. While similar to some of the phonic methods, the linguistic approaches do not isolate sounds or break up words. Sound-letter relationships are established by the repetition of known words and through the use of minimal contrasts (fat cat).

Recent linguistic approaches to the teaching of reading place greater emphasis on comprehension and stress the use of phrases and sentences rather than words.

E. **PROGRAMMED APPROACH.** Programmed reading instruction may be presented by a teaching machine or a computer, but it is most often taught by a book. The Buchanan-Sullivan (1963) materials are perhaps the most commonly used programmed readers. Programmed reading instruction is an individualized method in which the reader accepts much responsibility for his learning and progresses at his own rate. The sequence of skills presented is highly structured, and all students progress through all of the programmed materials, though at various rates.

F. **ORTHOGRAPHIC VARIATIONS.** Approaches to the teaching of reading which utilize an orthographic variation generally attempt to help beginning readers acquire a rapid mastery of sound-symbol correspondence. Orthographic variations include such plans as the initial teaching alphabet (ita), UNIFON, the diacritical marking system, Words in Color and the Peabody Rebus Reading Program. These are all beginning programs, and students make the transfer to the traditional orthography, the regular alphabet, very early – often in grade one.

G. **INTENSIVE PHONICS APPROACH.** An intensive phonics approach emphasizes the use of phonics as the most important word recognition technique. The emphasis is on decoding. Persons who use an intensive phonics approach may use one of several popular phonics workbook series, or they may use one of four basal series.

H. **MULTI-MEDIA APPROACH.** Recently, a number of programs which use machines for reading instruction have become popular. Such programs may include filmstrip projectors, tape recorders, various tachistoscopic devices and, in some cases, specially designed devices which may include viewing screens.

9 Word Recognition

The teaching of the word recognition skills[1] should be considered prerequisite to other skills such as reading comprehension or critical reading. The methods presented here are discussed independently, although they are generally not taught independently of one another. The teacher does not instruct students in the use of context clues and then teach phonics without ever again discussing context. The teacher may teach some aspects of phonics and then review the use of context clues. He may then show students how phonics and context may be used together to provide an even more valuable strategy for decoding new words.

All primary grade children and many intermediate grade children need systematic instruction in word recognition. While much of this chapter will be considered most appropriate for the primary teacher, it is hoped that teachers at the intermediate levels will also gain information for teaching word recognition skills.

A. **SIGHT VOCABULARY.** In the initial stages of reading instruction, children are usually taught a limited number of words, from 40 to 150, as whole words before any other word recognition techniques are presented. It is best not to delay the learning of at least a few words for too long. As few as 20 carefully chosen words will enable the child to read books.

It must be the goal of the teacher to increase the child's sight vocabulary steadily, each day, so that the other word recognition techniques are used only in that rare situation in which a word is not immediately known.

1. **Content Words and Function Words.** Content words are the nouns, verbs and adjectives that convey the message of a sentence or paragraph. Content words are generally words of high imagery. For example, the noun *dog* may be represented by the physical animal or by a picture; it is quite easy to conjure up a mental image of a dog. In contrast, the function words (articles, conjunctions, verb auxillaries, prepositions and pronouns) are words of no imagery. It is impossible to imagine a *the* or an *of* or an *and* except to imagine the individual letters of the word.

Because function words such as *the* and *and* occur so frequently, they must be introduced early in the reading program. Although function words are common and are usually very short, they must not be considered easy words for children to learn. Because they are words of no imagery, the function words are considerably more difficult for children to learn than the content words.

2. **Choosing the First Words.** It is reasonable to suggest that the selection of the first words be based on one or more of the following factors:

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[1] Although some writers make a distinction, the terms ***word recognition skills, word recognition techniques, word analysis techniques, word attack skills*** and ***decoding strategies*** all have the same meaning; they refer to the various means by which the reader arrives at the correct pronunciation of a word.

(1) The sound-letter regularity of the words.
(2) The use of common spelling patterns and phonograms.
(3) The imagery level of the words.
(4) The degree to which the child can articulate all parts of the word.
(5) The frequency of use in oral or written English.
(6) The child's preference for the words.

The best means of establishing a list of these first words for reading is probably to base them both on the child's preference and on word frequency. By introducing the child's preferred or personally selected words, the teacher maintains a high degree of interest in the reading act, and by introducing the most common words (*the, and, a, to, he, in, was, his, it* and *I*) the child is provided with the function words necessary in forming standard sentences.

If the teacher wishes to continue reading instruction by using the child's language exclusively, the language experience approach may be used. For persons who use other approaches, word selection will be based on other considerations which follow.

While the child's preferred words and common function words provide a basis for selecting the beginning vocabulary, it is reasonable to consider additional words on the basis of letter-sound regularity and the use of spelling patterns, including words with common phonograms. It is possible to introduce words which are consistent in their letter-sound relationships, common in the child's oral vocabulary and which are also words of high imagery.

3. **Word Lists.** Teachers may use word lists which contain common words – words which occur frequently. Such lists are usually derived from a large core of words found in speech, writing or literature. Recent, suitable new lists have been compiled with the aid of computer processing. Many teachers still use some of the older lists, such as the Dolch list.

For an extensive list of words, an excellent new source is *The American Heritage Word Frequency Book* (Carroll, Davies, & Richman, 1971), which contains more than 87,000 different words. The high-frequency words (Moe, 1972) and the high-frequency nouns (Moe, 1972b), which are based on a computer analysis of 110 widely used children's books, are good sources of words for beginning readers. The 100 high-frequency words in Table I account for 53 per cent of all the words used in the books analyzed. The 100 high-frequency nouns in Table II account for approximately 45 per cent of all the nouns used in the books. The words in the two lists combined account for 61 per cent of all the words contained in the 110 books examined.

TABLE I

High-Frequency Words

the*
and
a
to
he
of
in
was
his
it
I
you
on
they
said
she
for
that
with
but
her
all
had
little
at
is
as
up
so
one
out
were
him
there
when
them
my
be
not
down
have
their
went
could
what
them
from
came
into
me
see
very
are
this
will
like
go
no
would
just
back
now
over
by
big
do
old
can
if
your
who
away
where
or
an
how
come
looked
get
again
two
we
too
about
saw
good
more
did
made
off
didn't
some
new
red
long
around
know
through
other
put

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* Ranked by column in order of frequency of use

TABLE II

High-Frequency Nouns

mother*
day
house
tree
time
man
way
home
water
father
thought
night
egg
friend
people
thing
morning
bird
dog
boy
snow
bear
eye
cat
children
moon
head
sun
hill
sky
place
rabbit
baby
door
hand
king
bed
men
world
street
window
room
island
monkey
girl
top
feet
rock
winter
something
wind
rose
princess
flower
ground
fool
tail
garden
year
slide
light
rain
cap
horse
nest
sleep
town
lion
river
sea
city
air
grass
food
road
mitten
fish
fire
boat
fox
front
clothes
mouse
corner
woman
forest
ship
spring
field
crocodile
summer
milk
elephant
school
duck
palace
animal
cow
star
wall

---

*Ranked by column in order of frequency of use

4. **Picture Clues.** The use of a picture with the object or the action named is an aid to the child's development of a sight vocabulary. The pictures should clearly represent the word or words presented with it.

Almost all materials published for beginning readers contain pictures with the text. There are two reasons for this. First, it is more interesting for the child to read books with illustrations. Secondly, the illustrations help convey the meaning of the story.

5. **Configuration.** After a child has learned to recognize several two-, three- or four-letter words, he may be presented a word like *grandmother*, which he learns immediately because its configuration or shape is so different from the other words he knows. Later, when the word *grandfather* is introduced, the child must observe more than the gross configuration and observe the rather subtle features which differentiate *grandfather* and *grandmother.*

The use of configuration in learning new words is most helpful when combined with other word recognition techniques. It is not appropriate to draw eyelashes on the word *look* and state that the word has "two eyes which look at you" since *book, cook, hook* and *took* have a similar configuration which the child may confuse. Similarly, it is not wise to suggest that *monkey* "has a tail" when the word *donkey* is so similar. It is wise to help the children identify some distinctive feature of a word which is not apt to be confusing. In many cases, it means presenting words like *grandmother* and *grandfather* together and showing students that they must look beyond the initial letters in order to identify the word.

6. **Selected Activities, Primary.** For primary grade children, the following activities are suggested (some may be modified for intermediate grade use):

> *The word-eating dragon.* On a large sheet of tagboard, draw a dragon. Divide his body into sections and write a sight word on each section. Using a spinner and playing markers, the players take turns moving from the dragon's tail to his head. If a player cannot pronounce a word in the space his marker is on, he moves backward until he comes to a word he can pronounce. The first player to reach the head wins. A variation of the game is to have each player move until he comes to a word he cannot pronounce.
>
> *Bang!* Make a number of cards with sight words on them and place them in a container. For every six or seven word cards, make a card with the word *bang!* written on it and add it to the container. One child draws a card from the can; if he can pronounce it, he keeps the card. If not, he must put it back. If a player should pick a bang! card, he must then put all of his cards back into the container and start over. This continues around the group clockwise until someone has 10 cards in front of him and is the winner.
>
> *Sight word fish.* Make a bulletin board of under-the-sea life. Let the children make a school of fish, each fish having a sight word written on it. Then let each child take a turn fishing. If he knows the word written on his fish, he can keep it; if not, he throws it back into the sea.
>
> *Sight vocabulary filmstrips.* Collect incorrectly developed filmstrips from a camera dealer. Dunk the filmstrips in Clorox to clear and then write on the strips with felt-tip pens. Use in filmstrip projector and flash sight words as fast as children can read them.

Changeabout. Arrange as many sight word cards as you have players, minus one, in a circle. The extra person is IT and stands in the center of the circle. The other players pick up their cards and hold them in front of them. IT calls out two words, and the children having those words change places, taking their cards with them. IT tries to get to one of the open places. Whoever is left without a space becomes IT. Rotate the word cards between rounds.

Sight word speedway. Make a racetrack on a chart or bulletin board. Put sight words on slips of paper at intervals on the road. Each child makes his own paper car, which is tacked or taped at the point where he has difficulty recognizing a word. He is given that word on a *car card* to take home to study. He continues daily until all words are known.

Donkey. Take 36 sight words on which the children need extra practice and print them on cards; print the word *donkey* on four cards. The students are given equal numbers of words, face down. Each child must then pronounce the top word in his pile and lay it on the pile in the center of the table. If a student turns up the word *donkey,* every child trys to touch that card first in order to gain possession of the entire pile. The first player to obtain all of the cards wins the game.

Jumping words. Give each player four or five sight words and have him jump up when the voice on the tape recorder says one of his words. Occasionally add an extra word on the tape and play "see who gets stuck."

An excellent source of activities for vocabulary development is the book *Techniques of Teaching Vocabulary* (Dale, O'Rourke, and Bamman, 1971).

7. **Selected Activities, Intermediate.** The following activities are recommended for the intermediate grades:

Casino. Use 26 pairs of sight words written on cards. In the first deal, the dealer gives two cards to his opponents, two cards face up to the table and two to himself. He then deals the second round in the same manner. Each player thus receives four cards, and four are placed on the table. The hands are played; the dealer then gives each player four more cards in rounds of two at a time. After the first deal, the table is dealt no more cards. The general object is to take in cards from the table. Word matches must be said in order to be taken in. If a player does not know the word, he is helped but must wait until his next turn to take the match. Matches can be made only from the table. If no match can be made when it is a player's turn, he discards one card from his hand. The person with the most cards is the winner.

Nine square. Divide the sight words (48 cards) into two different colored packs with 24 sight words in each pack. Lay out a square of nine words in three rows of three each. Each player takes a turn matching the top word of the pile with the nine words in the square. Each time a match is made, the player must say the word on the cards to be matched. If a player sees a match, he takes up the two cards and puts them in his own pile. He may take the match from the nine squares on the desk and continue to match as long as the top card from the pile matches a card in the nine squares. When he sees no more matches, he fills in the nine square from the top of the pile. If a player does not see a match, he plays by moving the card from the top of the pile to the discard pile. No one plays from this pile until the playing pile is gone. The discard pile then becomes the playing pile. One player or the other has the chance, near the end of the game, when he plays the last card of the playing pile, to match all the pairs in the *square* and add them to his pile. When the game is through, each player counts his pile and the one with the most cards is the winner.

Sight word football. Mark off a football field on a large sheet of green poster board. Make lines with masking tape and cover with clear contact paper. Cut football out of brown construction paper. Use a deck of cards with sight words written on them. Divide the players into two teams. The ball advances with each correctly read word. Each team plays until a touchdown (6 points) is scored and receives one extra point for one more right answer. It is then the other team's turn to try for the touchdown. If a word is missed at any time, it is the other team's turn. The teacher may want to limit the time to two 5-minute halves.

Word rummy (similar to 500 rummy). The game is played with 52 cards, four of each word. Eight cards are dealt to each player, and the rest of the deck is placed in the middle with one card turned up. Before play begins, all players lay down pairs from their hands and any card they can play on other players' pairs. When all four cards of one word have been played, the word is dead and cards are turned face down. Once play begins, players play in turn only. The player to the left of the dealer begins by drawing from the deck or discard pile. He may draw as many cards from the discard pile as he wants as long as he plays the bottom card. If a playable card is discarded by mistake, another player may call rummy and play the card for a point. The game is over when a player goes out with a discard. A player may go out without a discard, but the game continues. Each card counts one point. Each card in hand, when game ends, counts one point against the player.

Word darts. Cover a bulletin board with paper and section it off like puzzle pieces with a magic marker. Place point values in each section. Sight vocabulary which is being developed is written on cards and stapled, one card to each section. The game is then played like regular darts, but rubber suction type darts should probably be used. The student gets three throws and adds his points. As he removes the darts, he says the word in each section in which his darts have landed. Words can be changed as frequently as necessary and more difficult words placed in sections worth more points. Young children can cover eyes and walk up to board and stick a pin in three places or just point to a section with eyes shut.

Hangman. Draw a hangman figure on the chalkboard at the beginning of the game. Two persons using tongue depressors as pointers stand in front of a chart containing all or a limited number of sight words. The teacher calls out a word and the first one to point to the word may erase one or more parts of the *hangman*. The person who gets to erase a part sits down and someone else is chosen to challenge the other person. The nose is the last part to be erased.

Sight word bingo. This game is played like bingo. Players are provided with cards containing 25 sight words (five rows of five words). The teacher pronounces a word, and the players look to see if their card contains the word. If it does, they cover it. The first player to get five squares covered in a row, column or diagonally wins. The winner should read the words quickly for the teacher to insure that he can recognize the words by sight.

B. **USE OF CONTEXT.** The use of context clues can be one of the greatest aids in helping the reader determine both the meaning and pronunciation of unfamiliar words. Therefore, the use of context is both a word recognition technique and a comprehension skill. The use of context means examining the known words surrounding the unfamiliar word to get clues which help the reader discover the meaning and pronunciation of the unknown word. Often the language structure provides clues to the meaning of the unknown word.

There are several ways in which context clues may be used:

- To check whether the pronounced word makes sense in the sentence.
- As an additional step when using other word attack skills.
- As a technique to determine the meaning of the unknown word.
- To derive the pronunciation of a *known* word whose pronunciation changes because of its use in a sentence.
- To enable the reader to anticipate the words he is to read.

1. **Types of Context Clues.** Many writers intentionally provide context clues for the reader. The use of pictures or drawings to gain clues to the meaning and pronunciation of words is common in the primary grades and for remedial work at other levels when students need strong association between form and meaning. Other common types of context clues are:

Definition. The definition technique is usually limited to situations in which the word is used for the first time.

Example: Mike sailed in the *regatta.* (A regatta is a series of boat races.)

Example. Descriptions or examples of the unknown word may clarify the meaning.

Example: There are many possible *configuration* patterns. Items may be arranged in rows, columns or in a circle.

Synonym. Synonyms are used in the same manner as definitions when the author wishes to explain a difficult word or terms.

Example: The solution was an enigma, a puzzle.

Mood. The mood or tone of the story gives a clue to the type of category of word the reader might expect to encounter.

Example: The cookout had been planned for days. But the guests arrived at the same time the rain did. There was no picnic shelter. The charcoal wouldn't light, and the food became wet and soggy. The cookout was a *catastrophe.*

Often when the use of context clues is combined with an inspection of the initial letter of the unknown word, the reader is given enough information to determine the identity of that word.

2. **Assessing the Reader's Use of Context.** The teacher can listen to the child read orally to determine how effectively he uses context clues. The teacher notes which words are missed and evaluates whether they should have been determined from context. Also, the reader should be questioned about the meaning of certain words where the meaning is

evident from the context. In silent reading, the reader can underline the words he does not know how to pronounce or define.

Another procedure which may be used is the cloze technique, in which the teacher deletes every fifth or sixth word in a paragraph and instructs the reader to fill in the blank spaces with words which make sense in the sentence. As an instructional exercise, the teacher may modify the cloze technique as desired, omitting only nouns or only verbs, for example.

Inattention to context may be a result of inadequate knowledge of the *uses* of context, weaknesses in comprehension skills, word-by-word reading, carelessness or any combination of the above.

The teacher can promote skill in the use of context clues by examining the material closely to determine whether the context *does* give a clue, by helping children attach appropriate meanings to new words that are encountered and by providing many opportunities for children to practice and extend their skill in the use of context clues. Context clues are most helpful when the material is on a student's instructional or independent reading level.

3. **Selected Activities**. There are many practice exercises in the use of context which the teacher can construct or obtain in reading workbooks. Examples of such exercises are:

Exercises in which the sentence meaning indicates the word to be recognized.

Example: The children sat in it as they paddled through the water. What was *it*.?
a. cabbage b. canoe c. color

Exercises in which the student reads sentences and fills in the missing word using the initial letter(s) given.

Example: John caught the football. Then he th ______________ it to Billy.

Exercises in which the student reads a sentence and fills in the missing word.

Example: Mother baked some ______________ yesterday.
a. cookies b. cats c. cried

Exercises using riddles in which the context gives the answer.

Example: It is long and yellow. It has a point. It is used for writing. It is a ______________.

Scrambled sentence exercises in which sentences are cut apart so that there is one word per piece which the student assembles into sentences. Sentences may be arranged into paragraphs. Exercises using half of a word pair in sentences which require the student to supply the missing half.

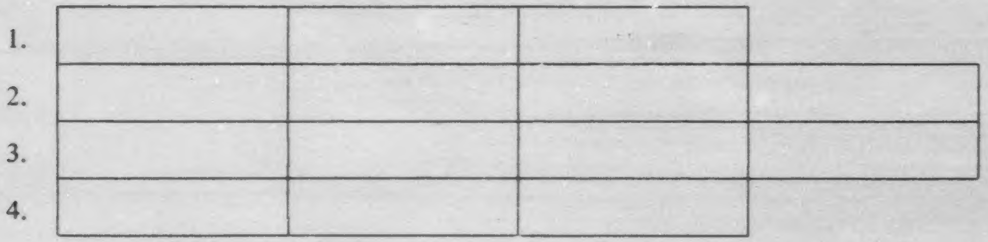
Example: I ate a peanut butter and ______________ sandwich for lunch.

Sentence mix-up game. Use two decks of cards, one which has cards containing a sentence which has words which might fit. Each child draws four cards from each deck and must draw the discard cards until he matches the four words and four sentences. The first person to match four pairs is the winner.

Climb the ladder game. Divide the class into two teams and draw a ladder for each team, having the same number of rungs on each. The teacher asks the first member of one team to tell the meaning of the word after it has been read in the context of a sentence. If he answers correctly, he climbs one rung of the ladder for his team. The team that climbs to the top of its ladder first wins.

Context word puzzle. Place the correct word from the list at the top of the puzzle in the corect squares.

run   said   what   sad



1. ____________ to first base!

2. ____________ did you say?

3. Mother ____________ to stay here.

4. The movie made me ____________.

C. **PHONICS.** By teaching phonics, the teacher attempts to help students learn the relationship between the language they already speak and the language they are learning to read and spell. While there are many phonic methods, the objective of all methods is to lead students to some generalizations about the correspondence between spoken and written English.

The English language uses 26 letters (the alphabet) to represent the 44 or 45 phonemes (sounds) of English. If there were one letter for each speech sound, and if those letters consistently represented one and only one speech sound, there would be a one-to-one correspondence between sound and letter and our language would be completely consistent. Since our language does not function that way, the reader is faced with situations in which a given sound is represented by various letters and letter combinations, as in the following words: *f*ood, gira*ff*e, *ph*one and enou*gh*. In some cases a given letter represents more than one speech sound, as in *c*ity and *c*ar or l*a*ke and b*a*t. And, in other situations letters are considered "silent" in that they are not pronounced. Nevertheless, in spite of the inconsistencies between spoken and written English, enough regularity exists that children should be guided in the acquisition of phonics skills.

1. **Analytic and Synthetic Approaches.** The analytic approaches are those in which the teacher first teaches a limited number of sight words, approximately 75 to 125, and then, through the use of these known words, teaches the reader to make inferences about sound-letter relationships for unknown words. For example, the teacher may have introduced *m*an, *m*other, *m*e and *m*ade as sight words. Then, by having the students analyze the words and note that they all sound alike at the beginning and that they all begin with the letter *m*, the students learn the sound-letter association for *m*. Subsequently, when the students encounter such unknown words as *m*oon, *m*onkey and *m*itten, they will know the sound that *m* represents and will have a clue to help them

identify the new words. Such an approach is sometimes called linguistic phonics, although it is essentially an analytic phonic method.

In the synthetic approaches to the teaching of phonics, the teacher teaches the individual letter-sound associations and then teaches the students to combine or synthesize the parts into a whole word. In one of the synthetic approaches, for example, the teacher would present the printed letter and identify the sound which the letter represents. The student who has been instructed in a synthetic method will be more likely to isolate word parts since his teacher does it; this practice is strongly opposed by linguists on the contention that it is unnatural since persons do not talk in word parts.

2. **Consonants.** In developing phonics skills, it is probably best to develop sound-symbol correspondence with consonants before vowels, although some persons do present vowels first. Consonants maintain their sound-symbol regularity much more so than vowels. For example, *b* always represents the sound heard at the beginning of the words *boy, big* and *bear*, whereas the letter *a* may represent several sounds, as in *cake, care, add, father* or *idea.*

The following consonants generally represent only one phoneme and are suggested for introduction first: *b, d, f, h, j, l, m, n, r, s, t* and *w.*

A good way to teach sound-symbol correspondence with the consonants is by using every-pupil response techniques. For example, assume the teacher is developing sound-symbol correspondence with *b* and *r*. Each child is provided with a card with the letter *b* and another card with the letter *r*. After several examples, the teacher asks the students to respond by holding up the correct card in response to directions such as "show me the letter that stands for the sound at the beginning of *boy* or *road.*" Students may even be provided with three or four cards, and the teacher may wish to work on final and medial consonants as well.

3. **Blends.** Sounds that are combined, but which maintain the sound which individual letters represent, are called blends. The *bl* in *blue*, the *br* in *brown*, the *sn* in *snow*, the *cl* in *clay* and the *str* in *straw* are all blends. Blends are sometimes referred to as clusters, clusters being a term used to describe both blends and digraphs. Beginning consonant blends are common. They should be taught after consonant sound-letter correspondence has been learned.

Several consonant blends are so common that they are often referred to as families of blends. They are the *s, l* and *r* families often found in such words as:

spot
scout
snow
smooth
stray
spray

glow
blow
flew
clear
play
sled

crow
grow
break
tree
proud
draw

4. **Phonograms and Consonant Substitutions.** Consider the child who has learned the words *father, fast, food* and *fun* and has been led to see the relationship between the initial sound and the initial letter of each word. If this same child is learning *at, cat, hat, mat* and *rat* and has been led to see the relationship between the sound at the end of the words and the letters *at*, hopefully he will be able to decode the word *fat* or say it by himself when he encounters it for the first time. This is an example of consonant substitution. The student applies what he has learned in one situation to a new situation.

Consonant substitution can best be achieved if the teacher uses common phonograms, often called word families. With phonograms such as *ing*, it is possible to create at least 15 new words by adding consonants and consonant blends.

Some of the more common phonograms, with a few of the words which may generate from each, are listed below.

ack – back, black, crack, jack, lack, pack, quack, sack, shack

ail – ail, fail, frail, hail, jail, mail, sail, pail, quail, rail

ake – bake, brake, cake, flake, lake, make, rake, shake, snake

ale – ale, bale, gale, male, pale, sale, scale, stale, tale, whale

ame – blame, came, dame, flame, game, lame, name, same, shame

ank – bank, blank, crank, drank, frank, plank, rank, sank, spank

ap – cap, chap, clap, gap, lap, nap, map, rap, sap, snap, scrap

are – bare, care, dare, fare, glare, mare, pare, rare, scare, share

ash – ash, cash, clash, crash, dash, flash, gash, hash, lash, mash

at – at, bat, cat, chat, fat, flat, hat, mat, pat, rat, sat, that

ate – ate, crate, date, gate, hate, late, mate, plate, rate, skate

ave – behave, brave, cave, gave, pave, rave, save, shave, wave

aw – caw, claw, draw, flaw, gnaw, jaw, law, paw, raw, saw, slaw

ay – bay, bray, clay, day, dray, gay, gray, hay, jay, lay, may

ear – clear, dear, ear, fear, gear, hear, near, rear, smear, spear

eat – beat, cheat, eat, heat, neat, meat, peat, seat, treat, wheat

ell – bell, cell, fell, sell, shell, smell, spell, tell, well

est – best, blest, chest, guest, nest, pest, test, rest, vest

ice – dice, ice, lice, mice, nice, price, rice, spice

ick – brick, chick, click, kick, lick, nick, pick, quick, sick

ide – bride, glide, guide, hide, pride, ride, side, slide, tide

ight – bright, fight, flight, fright, height, knight, light, might

ill – bill, chill, dill, drill, fill, grill, hill, ill, kill, mill in – bin, chin, din, fin, gin, grin, in, pin, sin, skin, spin

ine – dine, fine, line, mine, nine, pine, shine, spine, twine

ing – bring, cling, ding, king, ping, ring, sing, sling, spring

ink – blink, brink, drink, ink, kink, link, pink, shrink, sink

it – bit, fit, grit, hit, kit, lit, mit, pit, quit, sit, slit

ock – block, clock, cock, crock, dock, flock, frock, knock, lock

oke – broke, choke, coke, joke, poke, smoke, spoke, stroke, awoke

op – chop, crop, drop, flop, hop, lop, mop, pop, prop, shop

ore – bore, core, fore, more, score, shore, snore, sore, store

ot – blot, cot, dot, got, hot, jot, knot, lot, not, pot, plot

ow – blow, bow, crow, flow, glow, grow, know, low, mow, row

uck – chuck, cluck, duck, luck, puck, stuck, shuck, struck, suck

ug – bug, drug, dug, hug, jug, mug, plug, rug, smug, snug, tug

ump – bump, dump, hump, jump, lump, plump, pump, rump, slump

ung – clung, flung, lung, rung, slung, sprung, strung, stung

unk – bunk, chunk, drunk, hunk, junk, punk, shrunk, skunk, spunk

ush – blush, brush, crush, flush, gush, hush, mush, plush, rush

y – by, cry, dry, fly, fry, my, shy, sky, sly, sty, thy, try

5. **Spelling Patterns and Phonograms.** Several spelling patterns represent uniformity in a given combination of letters and are usually pronounced the same regardless of the word in which they are found. For example, the consonant-vowel-consonant (CVC) spelling pattern with the *an* phonogram includes such words as *fan, man, pan, plan* and *span*. In the consonant-vowel-consonant-final-silent-e (CVCE) spelling pattern, the words *mate, hate, fate* and *plate* maintain their regularity. In the consonant-vowel-vowel-consonant (CVVC) spelling pattern, the regularity is not as great, but some of the vowel combinations are regular, i.e., the *oa* in *boat, goat* and *float*. In the consonant vowel (CV) pattern found in several common short words, such as *he* and *me*, and in many syllables, such as the *ti*, in *tiger*, we also have consistency in sound-letter relationship.

If one considers using beginning consonants and phonograms and forms words such as *set, wet, pet* or *lake, take, make, flake, brake*, it is possible to generate hundreds of words which do maintain sound-letter regularity.

6. **Digraphs and Diphthongs.** Letter combinations which represent sounds which are

usually different from the sounds represented by the individual letters are called digraphs and diphthongs.

There are two types of digraphs, consonant digraphs and vowel digraphs. The common consonant digraphs are *ch, sh, th, wh, ng, gh* and *ph.* It is essential to know that while the consonant digraphs contain two letters, they represent only one sound. Because many common words such as *the, they, that* and *there* contain digraphs, it is important that children understand them early.

In contrast to the consonant digraphs, the vowel digraphs do not represent new sounds. The *oa* in *goat* is a vowel digraph as is the *ea* in *bean.* Vowel digraphs maintain a sound represented by one of the two vowels and the other is silent.

Diphthongs represent a sound formed by the union of two vowels, such as the *oi* in *boil* or the *ou* in *out.* The more common diphthongs are *oi, ou, ow* and *oy.*

7. **Phonic Generalizations.** Most of the phonic generalizations or rules which have appeared in print in the last 40 years are of questionable value because (1) there are too many exceptions to the rules, (2) there are too few words to which the generalizations might reasonably apply and (3) some are too complex to be understood by primary grade students.

It is important that students arrive at generalizations about their written language. However, it is probably better to help children develop generalizations by teaching them about phonograms and spelling patterns than to try to present a predetermined number of phonic rules.

8. **Selected Activities.** Some activities which may be used for practice in various phonic skills are:

Alpha cards. This game is designed to provide practice in the recognition of initial and final consonant sounds. A path is made on the game board with squares which have consonants printed on them. Dice and picture and word cards are also needed. Seven cards are dealt to each player. The first player throws the dice and moves the number of spaces indicated. He then checks to see if he has a picture or word card in his hand which starts or ends with the letter sound on which he has landed. If he does, he puts the card in the discard pile. The winner is the first player to discard all of his cards.

Name that word. Make enough small cards so that each consonant can be printed on a separate card. More than one card for each consonant may be used. Place the cards face down on the table. The players then take turns selecting a card and naming a word which begins with the same letter. If a player cannot name a word within five seconds, he puts the card back. The person with the greatest number of cards after the entire pile has been drawn wins.

Flasher bingo. Each child is given a different mimeographed sheet of letters and several plastic disks. The teacher flashes a picture on the screen with the overhead projector. The players find the letter which stands for the beginning sound on their papers and cover it with a disk. The first child with five letters covered in a row wins the game. This procedure can also be applied to ending sounds.

Can of worms. This game is designed to provide practice on initial consonants and phonograms. Fill a can with fat paper worms on which common phonograms are written. Also construct a number of brightly colored fish, on each of which is written a consonant, and place them face down on the table. The players take turns drawing a worm and "hooking" a fish with it. If the initial consonant on the fish can be combined with the phonogram on the worm to make a word, the player can keep the fish and worm. If not, he throws the fish and worm back and waits until his next turn to try again. The player with the most fish and worms at the end of the game wins.

Vowel houses. Cards with one-syllable words containing different vowels and a game board showing "vowel houses" which represent different vowels (two houses per vowel – 10 houses in all) are needed. Each player receives five cards with one-syllable words on them. Players take turns placing one card in the correct vowel house on the board. If they do not place the card correctly, they must keep the card and draw another. The winner is the first person to place all of his cards in the houses.

Blend pass. On word cards, write a word containing a blend which has been taught. Cut each word into two pieces between the blend and the remainder of the word. Put about 10 of these in an envelope for each student. The students then assemble the cards to make words. After they have completed their envelopes of words, they exchange with another student and work on 10 different words.

Vowel rummy. This game can be used to provide practice on different vowel sounds by using them in words. A deck of 52 word cards is used. Pass out seven cards to each player and play the card game "fish." Each player takes a turn asking for the vowel sound he needs to make a book. For example, he may ask for a card with the long *i* sound, as in *fight*. The person with the most books at the end of the game wins.

Phonic tiddly winks. A game board drawn to look like a target is sectioned into parts, each of which contains a consonant, vowel, blend, digraph or diphthong. Each player flips a button onto the board and scores a point if he can give a word using the phonic element on which he has landed. Some spaces may be worth more points than others. The person with the most points at the end of the game wins.

D. **STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS.** Structural analysis is a technique for breaking a word into its component parts for identification, these parts being portions larger than individual letters.

The sequence in decoding a word by means of structural analysis usually consists of looking at the whole word, the word parts and then the whole word again.

Structural analysis is possible with three kinds of words. They may be (1) words with inflectional endings, such as *s, 's, es, d, ed, er, est* or *ing*; (2) derived words, constructed from a root, a suffix and/or prefix, or (3) compound words.

1. **Inflected Forms.** The simplest form of structural analysis begins in the first grade through the recognition of inflectional variants. Such variants are made up of a root or base word plus an ending (s, es, t, en, ed, ing, er and est). They may change the tense of verbs or the number of nouns; indicate the possessive case, comparison or degree in adjectives, or be the present or past participle. The variants of adjectives have the "er" and "est" endings, although "more" and "most" are used with some adjectives to replace the variant endings.

2. **Derived Forms.** A derived form, or derivative, is a word made up of a root word and one or more parts called prefixes and suffixes. The child must examine words carefully to discover the familiar root which conveys the meaning. He must learn that prefixes and suffixes have meanings of their own which, when combined with root words, may have a distinctly different meaning, such as in the words *unhappy* or *unreliable*.

A *prefix* is one or more syllables put at the beginning of a word to change its meaning. Some frequently used prefixes are:

Prefix	Meaning
ab	from
anti	against
be	by
de	from
dis	apart, not
en	in
ex	out
il	not
im	in, into, not
in	in, into, not
ir	not
non	not
post	behind
pre	in front of, before
pro	in front of, before
re	back
sub	under
super	above, over
trans	across
un	not

A *suffix* is syllable which is added to the end of a word and which usually results in a change of meaning. Some frequently used suffixes are:

Suffix	Meaning
able	able to, capable of
age	act of
ant (ent)	one who
ar (ary)	relating to
er	agent, performer of
ful	full of
hood	state of, condition
ist	practicer or believer in
ize	to become like
less	without
ness	state of
ory	producing, tending to
ose	full of, containing
ous	having, full of
ship	state of, full of
y	in the manner of

Intermediate grade teachers will find derived forms of words are the key to the extension of a child's meaning vocabulary. *Techniques of Teaching Vocabulary* (Dale, O'Rourke and Bamman, 1971) provides many excellent activities in this area for the intermediate grades.

3. **Compound Words.** A compound word is one made up of two or more simple words, neither of which has changed form in the process. Structural analysis includes the identification of two known words within a compound word. For example, the word *something* consists of the words *some* and *thing*. Some compound words are written as two words, as in the case of *ice cream* and *post office*.

4. **Syllabication.** Syllabication is the division of words into their pronounceable units, or syllables. The reader does not need to know that *ignorant* is divided between the *o* and the *r*, rather than the *r* and the *a*, to pronounce the word correctly. Syllabication is useful inasmuch as it helps the student break words into smaller units which he can pronounce and blend back into a word which makes sense to him.

Spache and Spache (1973) suggest the following concepts are those which we should be concerned with teaching, not a myriad of rules:

(1) Each single vowel or vowel combination, except for an *e* at the end of a word, indicates a syllable.
(2) Try to say the word slowly, part by part, giving short vowel sounds if the unit appears to be a closed syllable.
(3) Do you now recognize the word?
(4) If not, read the sentence all the way through again and guess what word that begins like the new word would make sense.
(5) Try to say the word again. If you still have no clues, try long vowel sounds instead of short ones in some of the syllables. Now, do you recognize it?
(6) If not, mark it by underlining or a check in the margin. Finish your reading.
(7) If you still haven't figured out the word and you need it to understand the selection, go to the dictionary.

Shuy (1969) has modified existing rules of syllabication to make them more widely applicable and consistent and easier to understand. He provides four rules the reader is to use, in order, until he finds the one that applies. Briefly stated, his rules are:

(1) Determine whether the word is a compound word.
(2) Look for prefixes, suffixes and other word endings you know.
(3) Look in the middle of the word for a consonant cluster.
(4) If there is no cluster or consonant letter in the middle of the word, divide the word after the consonant that follows the first vowel letter.

5. **Possessives and Contractions.** The use of the apostrophe in possessives and contractions is usually introduced in the primary grades. The teacher must demonstrate the use of the apostrophe and must develop exercises which provide practice. The apostrophe in possessives shows ownership. The apostrophe in contractions indicates that a letter or letters have been omitted in forming the new word. Some contractions to be studied include:

Contraction	Full Form
I'm	I am
he'll	he will
I'll	I will
he's	he is
hasn't	has not
I've	I have
haven't	have not
don't	do not
wasn't	was not
they've	they have
you'll	you will
it's	it is
doesn't	does not
let's	let us
didn't	did not
can't	cannot
isn't	is not
you're	you are
you'll	you will
we're	we are
we'll	we will
they're	they are
they'll	they will

Readers who have an adequate knowledge of sound-symbol correspondence and who have gained facility in breaking words into structural units usually have little trouble in attacking new words independently.

6. **Selected Activities.** Some of the activities which teachers may wish to use in teaching structural analysis skills are:

Plurals. Put a sentence on the board with two forms of the same word and have the children select the correct form.

Example: I have one (dog dogs).

Compound words. Match a word in Column 1 with a word in Column 2 to form a compound word.

Column 1	Column 2
with	track
bed	house
club	room
race	out

Contractions. Match the words in Column 1 with the appropriate contractions in Column 2.

Column 1	Column 2
do not	I'll
will not	don't
I will	won't
have not	haven't

Syllables. Print syllables or other structural parts of words on cards which the student can assemble to form words. The activity can be evaluated by having the students pronounce and define their words.

Prefix and suffix baseball game. Two teams select a pitcher, who will pitch a prefix or suffix card to another student, the batter. The batter must think of and pronounce a word using the prefix or suffix. If he does so, he moves to first base, and it is the next batter's turn.

Word wheels. Print root words on the inner circle of the wheel and suffixes on the outer wheel, or print prefixes on the inner wheel and root words on the outer wheel. The student can then rotate the wheel to see how many words can be formed.

Fish. Make a deck of cards printed with root words and, for each root word, make additional word cards formed by using three different endings for each root word, i.e., pick, picking, picks, picked. Deal each player five cards. Place the rest face down for a drawing pile. The object is to get the most tricks for root word families.

Concentration. Provide word pairs which are similar to one another and lay them face down. Each player turns over two cards at a time, looking for words which match exactly. This requires players to give careful attention to word endings.

Prefix game. Prepare a game board with a colored construction paper path, spinner, markers and cards containing words with prefixes. On the back of each word card, the word is printed again, this time with the prefix underlined. The child picks a word card and must correctly tell which letters of the word are the prefix. He spins the spinner to see how many spaces to move and checks his answer on the back of the card. The first person to reach the finish wins. Suffixes may be used instead of prefixes.

Contractions. Provide a set of cards with contractions printed on them and a set of cards printed with matching words and distribute the cards so that each child will have a card from each set. One child is designated to go to the front of the class. He holds up a card from either set. The child with the matching card takes his place beside the child who is standing before the class. Each child then reads what his card says. The first child may choose another child to go before the class with his card to be matched. Continue until all cards have been matched.

E. **THE DICTIONARY.** Even though students are taught to make effective use of context clues and to use other word attack skills to determine the meaning of unknown words, they must sometimes use the dictionary. A knowledge of how to make use of a dictionary and its contents is essential to independent word analysis.

1. **Dictionary Skills.** The term dictionary skills refers to the use of the dictionary to determine the location, pronunciation, meaning and spelling of unfamiliar words. Instruction in dictionary skills usually begins in grade three and continues through grade six, although the use of picture dictionaries begins the development of such skills much earlier.

Zintz (1970) has cited the following location skills which are often included in dictionary instruction:

- Ability to arrange words in alphabetical order by initial letter, by second letter and by third or fourth letters.
- Ability to find words quickly in an alphabetical list.
- Ability to open the dictionary quickly to the section in which the word is to be found
- (to the proper fourth of the book).
- Ability to use the two guide words at the top of the page.
- Ability to think of the names of letters immediately preceding and immediately following the letter being located.
- Ability to use special pronunciation-meaning sections of the dictionary, i.e., medical terms, slang expressions, musical terms and foreign words and phrases.

Zintz (1970) has identified the following pronunciation skills as an area to be included in dictionary study:

- Ability to use the pronunciation key at the bottom of each page.
- Ability to use the full pronunciation key in the front of the dictionary.
- Ability to use and interpret accent marks, both primary and secondary.
- Ability to select the proper heteronyms, i.e., rec' ord or re/ cord'; ob' ject or ob/ ject'.
- Ability to identify silent letters in words pronounced.
- Ability to recognize differences between spellings and pronunciations (lack of phoneme-grapheme relationship).
- Ability to use phonetic spelling for pronunciation.
- Ability to discriminate vowel sounds.
- Ability to use diacritical marks as an aid in pronunciation.
- Understanding of the way syllables are marked in dictionaries.
- Ability to identify unstressed syllables in words.
- Arriving at pronunciation and recognizing it as correct.

The following meaning skills comprise another area of dictionary study identified by Zintz (1970):

- Learning meanings of new words by reading simple definitions.
- Using pictures and meanings in the dictionary to arrive at meanings.
- Using an illustrative sentence to arrive at meanings.
- Using two different meanings for the same word.
- Ability to approximate real life sizes by using dictionary pictures and explanatory clues.
- Ability to select the specific meaning for a given context.
- Understanding special meanings: idioms, slang expressions and other figures of speech.
- Use of the concept of *root word*.
- Interpreting multiple meanings of words.
- Ability to know when meaning has been satisfied through dictionary usage.

2. **Picture Dictionaries.** The term picture dictionary, or "pictionary," refers to books in which a picture accompanies each word entry. The picture dictionary is primarily a self-help device for children in grades one through three. Through the use of picture dictionaries, children are able to write simple stories independently.

The following list is a sample of available picture dictionaries:

Courtis-Watters Illustrated Golden Dictionary for Young Readers by Stuart A. Courtis and Garnette Watters, Golden Press.
Cat in the Hat Beginner Dictionary by P.D. Eastman, Random House.
Picture Dictionary for Boys and Girls by Alice Howard Scott, Garden Publishing Co.
Child's First Picture Dictionary by Lillian Moore, Grosset and Dunlap.
The Golden Picture Dictionary by Lillian Moore, Grosset and Dunlap.
My Picture Dictionary by Hale C. Reid and Helen W. Crane, Ginn and Co.
The New Golden Dictionary for Children by Garnette Watters and Stuart Courtis, Grosset and Dunlap.
The Rainbow Dictionary by Wendell Wright, World Publishing Co.
The Follett Beginning-to-Read Picture Dictionary by Alta McIntire, Follett Publishing Co.
My Little Pictionary by Marion Monroe and W.C. Greet, Scott, Foresman and Co.
My Second Pictionary by Marion Monroe and W.C. Greet, Scott, Foresman and Co.
Words I Like to Read, Write and Spell by Mabel O'Donnell and Wilhelmina Townes, Harper and Row.
Young Reader's Color-Picture Dictionary for Reading by Margaret B. Parke, Grosset and Dunlap.
The Giant Picture Dictionary for Boys and Girls by Alice Scott and Stella Center, Doubleday and Co.
First Dictionary by John Trevaskis and Robin Hyman, Young Readers Press, Inc.
Very First Words for Writing and Spelling by Aldren A. Watson, Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc.
My Word-Clue Dictionary by Albert J. Harris and Mae Knight Clark, The Macmillan Co.
My Self-Help Dictionary by Albert J. Harris and Mae Knight Clark, The Macmillan Co.

3. **Dictionaries Used in the Elementary School.** Many good dictionaries are available for use in the elementary school. Every attempt should be made to provide a dictionary for each student in the class, although the same dictionary need not be provided for each child. Some of the dictionaries available are:

The American Heritage School Dictionary, Houghton Mifflin Co.
The Holt Basic Dictionary of American English, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.
Illustrated Golden Dictionary for Young Readers by Stuart A. Courtis and Garnett Watters, eds., Golden Press, Inc.
Thorndike-Barnhart Beginning Dictionary by Edward L. Thorndike and Clarence L. Barnhart, eds., Scott, Foresman and Co.
Thorndike Barnhart Junior Dictionary by Edward L. Thorndike and Clarence L. Barnhart, eds., Scott, Foresman and Co.
Webster's A Dictionary For Boys and Girls, American Book Co.
Webster's New Elementary Dictionary, American Book Co.
The Winston Dictionary for Schools by Thomas K. Brown and William D. Lewis, eds., Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.
The World Book Dictionary by Clarence Barnhart, ed., Field Enterprises Educational Corporation

The Xerox Intermediate Dictionary by William Morris, Grosset and Dunlap, Inc.
The Charlie Brown Dictionary by Charles M. Schulz, Prentice Hall.
In Other Words: A Beginning Thesaurus by W.C. Greet, W.A. Jenkins and A. Schiller, Scott, Foresman and Co.
In Other Words: A Junior Thesaurus by W.C. Greet, W.A. Jenkins and A. Schiller, Scott, Foresman and Co.
Scholastic Dictionary of Synonyms, Antonyms, Homonyms, Scholastic Book Services.

4. **Selected Activities.** Basal reader workbooks and English textbooks contain many dictionary exercises. In addition to these, many dictionary publishers provide study guides to accompany their dictionaries. The following activities are included as a sample of activities the teacher may wish to include in the study of dictionary skills:

Worksheet. For each of the words listed below, write *B* if the word is found near the beginning of the dictionary, *M* if it is found near the middle, and *E* if it is found near the end.

Example: magical ______ weather ______ extreme ______
different ______ possibly ______ zoology ______

Worksheet. Look up the answers to the following questions in your dictionary. Check the correct answer and write the page number on which you found the answer.

Example: Is Newfoundland in Connecticut? Yes ☐ No ☐ Page ______
Is rain precipitation? Yes ☐ No ☐ Page ______

Dictionary relay. The teacher writes a word on the chalkboard and students quickly look up the word in the dictionary; the first person to locate the word and identify the page on which it appears wins.

Worksheet. Write two meanings for each of the words listed.

Example: plane ____

Worksheet. Write the letter that goes before and after each of the following letters:

Example: __m__ __r__ __y__ __g__

Worksheet. Fill in the missing letters in the underlined words.

Example: It was necess__ry to leave the party early.

Worksheet. Number the words to show how they would be arranged in alphabetical order.

Example:
____castle
____capture
____casual
____cabbage

Worksheet. Put an X before each word that you would expect to find on a dictionary page that has these guide words.

BLACK BLAST
_____ blink _____ blue
_____ blare _____ bland
_____ blossom _____ bloom

List three synonyms for each of the following words:

Example: smart _______________ _______________ _______________
mean _______________ _______________ _______________

Scrabble. Modify the rules of this popular game so that it *is* permissible to use a dictionary when trying to form new words.

F. **COMMON WORD RECOGNITION PROBLEMS.** When the teacher listens to a child read orally, it is usually possible to analyze the child's deviations from the printed text and to observe a pattern which identifies the student's reading problem.

1. **The Overanalytical Reader.** According to Bond and Tinker (1967), overanalysis takes two forms: (1) the child may stop to analyze all words, including those he knows at sight, and (2) the child may break words into many small parts, perhaps into individual letters, instead of using the larger elements he knows. Some overanalytic readers use a spelling method on each new word by spelling it out letter by letter before attempting its pronunciation.

The overanalytical reader is generally the result of too early an introduction of detailed phonics instruction in word recognition. This overemphasis sometimes results in an imbalance between the building of sight vocabulary and word analysis. The end result is that the child either fails to build a sight vocabulary and must, therefore, attack each word he meets, or he forms the habit of analyzing all words he reads, even those words he knows as sight words. Too much emphasis on instruction with letter-by-letter sounding impedes recognition. The word *what*, for example, does not lend itself to letter-by-letter sounding if the reader is to pronounce the word properly. Many words similar to the word *what* are *irregular* and must be learned as sight words.

To help children overcome their tendency to analyze words that are already known as sight words, use exercises to increase sight vocabulary similar to those described earlier in this chapter. Rapid or flash exposure of isolated words is also a helpful procedure, as is the rapid reading of *very* easy books. The reader who breaks words up into too many small parts may be aided by work in structural analysis, i.e., by noting root words, prefixes, suffixes, variant endings and compound words.

2. **The Context Reader.** The student who reads the content words and omits many of the structure or function words or who guesses at these words in a way that fits the meaning of what he has read, is called a context reader. This type of reading problem often is the result of a limited or inadequate sight vocabulary and/or a lack of comprehension of what one is reading. In many cases, however, the student does obtain the meaning of the story,

and if the meaning is obtained, the problem may be minimal.

3. **The Word-By-Word Reader.** Word-by-word reading is a habit which is frequently formed as a result of a low sight vocabulary and a deficiency in the use of word attack skills. It may be the result of some faulty reading habits such as reversals, substitutions, omissions and additions or insertions. The result of a word-by-word reading is a reduction in comprehension and a decrease in a student's reading rate. Often a student reads so slowly and laboriously that he loses the continuity of meaning between words. To help eliminate this habit, an attempt to increase sight vocabulary is extremely important, as is practice in reading words in groups or phrases.

It is also possible to categorize the types of mistakes readers make according to their type and severity. Some of these are discussed below.

4. **Reversals.** Reversal is a term used to describe a variety of errors including: (1) confusion of single letters (*b, d, p, q, m, w, n, u*), (2) reversals of words (*saw* for *was*, *on* for *no*), (3) partial reversals of words (*ate* for *tea*, *every* for *never*) and (4) reversals of word order in a sentence (*the dog chased the cat* for *the cat chased the dog*).

While reversals are not the most common type of word recognition error, they deserve careful analysis and treatment. Usually, reversals are an indication that a child needs training to develop a consistent left-to-right sequence in reading. Harris (1970) has identified the following techniques which may be used to overcome common reversal tendencies:

- Trace, write and sound words which are frequently confused to enforce the use of the correct sequence of letters.
- Cover the word to be read with a card and move the card slowly to the right, uncovering one letter at a time so that the letters are exposed in the proper sequence.
- Underline the first letter of the word. Sometimes it is effective to underline the first letter in green and the last letter in red and to instruct the child to use the colors as traffic signals.
- Encourage the child to follow along the words with his finger, pencil or ruler.
- Draw an arrow, pointing to the right, beneath words which are frequently reversed.

5. **Repetitions.** Some repetitions are caused by slowness in word recognition. If the child comes to a word he cannot recognize, he often repeats one or more of the preceding words to give him more time to decode the unfamiliar one. Other causes of repetitions are failure to comprehend the material being read, inattention to context and nervousness or self-consciousness in oral reading. Repetitions often result in faulty comprehension, a reduction of reading rate and unrhythmical oral reading.

Students who repeat many words should be provided with interesting materials which are easy for them to read to encourage fluency of expression. Choral reading and echoic reading may also be advantageous in helping the child overcome his tendency to repeat words unnecessarily. It should be noted that occasional repetitions are common for anyone who reads orally.

6. **Substitutions.** According to Spache and Spache (1973), there are four forms of substitutions:

(1) The substituted word may have the same shape or form and the same idea, such as

house for *home*, implying that the reader is attending to the meaning of the context and word form but probably not using phonics as a word recognition technique.

(3) The substitution of a whole word with a different form and idea, such as *house* for *there,* indicating little attention to any method of word attack, is also common.

(2) The substitution may have the same form but a different meaning, such as *house* for *horse,* indicating possible overdependence upon the word form or shape as the chief means of word identification. This is the most frequent type of whole-word substitution, especially among beginning readers.

(4) The substitution may be of a whole word with the same idea or meaning but different form, such as *can* for *will,* implying good use of context but little attention to word form or phonics.

If the reader's substitutions are infrequent, reasonable, and do not alter the meaning, the teacher can safely ignore them.

7. **Additions or Insertions.** Additions of whole words which are not included in the written text is a habit commonly found among intermediate grade students because their reading demands quick reactions, rapid reading and a degree of verbal fluency. Additions may also occur when the reader is trying to correct another error. When an excessive number of additions are made, this may be an indication of superficial reading and an overdependence on, or inattention to, context. Additions at the ends of words which change the tense or number may be indicative of lack of training in structural analysis, especially in beginning readers.

8. **Omissions.** Omissions of words in oral reading may indicate excessive speed, a tendency to leave out unknown words, eye difficulties or carelessness. Asking a child to reread the words he omitted usually gives an indication of the probable cause. Omissions of endings may be a reflection of poor structural analysis techniques, or it may be the influence of the student's dialect.

An excellent source of activities designed to help overcome some of these common reading problems is the book *Locating and Correcting Reading Difficulties* by Eldon E. Ekwall.

9. **Miscues Vs. Errors.** Some persons in the field of reading feel that the reader who does not pronounce each word as it appears on the written page is not necessarily making an error but rather a miscue. It may be the result of his dialect or his interpretation of what he is reading.

Kenneth Goodman (1973) defines a miscue as "an actual observed response in oral reading which does not match the expected response." He believes that if the teacher can understand how the reader's miscues relate to the expected responses, he can also begin to understand how the reader is using the reading process.

In a discussion of classroom reading, Goodman and Burke (1972) state that generally, when the student's reading deviates from the written text, the teacher asks the reader to stop and reread the word or words he mispronounced. This procedure is based on the belief that a student must read exactly what is on the page and that when he does not, he must correct all deviations regardless of their effect on meaning. They suggest that all readers deviate from the text and that these deviations can be evaluated by the degree to which the meaning of the text is disrupted. These deviations, or miscues, suggest that they are not random errors, but that they are cued by the thought and language of the reader as he encounters the written material. Reading miscues are evaluated *qualitatively* as well as *quantitatively*.

In evaluating miscues qualitatively, the teacher may wish to consider the following questions as identified by Goodman and Burke (1972):

- Is a dialect variation involved in the miscue?
- Is a shift in intonation involved in the miscue?
- How much does the miscue look like what was expected?
- How much does the miscue sound like what was expected?
- Is the grammatical function of the miscue the same as the grammatical function of the text?
- Is the miscue correct?
- Does the miscue result in a structure which is grammatically acceptable within the reader's dialect?
- Does the miscue result in meaning which is acceptable within the reader's dialect?
- Does the miscue result in a change of meaning?

With these questions in mind, the teacher can evaluate omissions, substitutions and additions or insertions as to their degree of severity and need for remediation.

Goodman and Burke (1972) suggested that teachers consider a miscue as one aspect of how a child deals with written language rather than considering a miscue something which must immediately be corrected. As the teacher notes a child's miscues, he can begin to focus on the type of help a child needs in becoming a skilled reader.

G. **MATERIALS.** The entries listed here are a sample of books, workbooks, games, kits and other multi-media designed to provide practice on various word recognition skills.

Bishop, Margaret M. *Phonics With Write and See.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Boning, Richard A. *Specific Skills Series.* Baldwin, N.Y.: Barnell Loft, Ltd.

Decoding Games. New York: Mult-Media Education

Durr, William K., and Hillerich, Robert L. *Reading Skills Laboratory.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1970.

Edwards, G.N., et. al., *Phonic Fun.* Chicago: Benefic Press.

Flash-X. Huntington, N.Y.: Educational Development Laboratories.

Hay, Julie, and Wingo, Charles E. *Reading With Phonics.* Chicago: Lippincott.

Kaleidoscope of Skills: Reading. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1966.

Kottmeyer, William. *Dr. Spello.* St. Louis: Webster Division, McGraw-Hill, 1968.

Krane, Louis. *Phonics Is Fun.* Cleveland: Modern Curriculum Press, 1970.

Meilglen, Mary, and Pratt, Marjorie. *Phonics We Use.* Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan.

Middlemas, Virginia, et. al. *Contextual Clues and Phonetic Analyses, and Structural Analysis.* New York: Center for Programmed Instruction.

Moe, Alden J. *High-Frequency Nouns: Word Cards for Beginning Readers.* St. Paul, Minn.: Ambassador Publishing Co., 1972.

Moe, Alden J. *High-Frequency Words: Word Cards for Beginning Readers.* St. Paul, Minn.: Ambassador Publishing Co., 1972.

Phonics We Use -- Learning Games Kit. Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan.

Reading Skills Laboratory. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Stolpen, Beulah Harris, et. al., *Linguistic Block Series.* Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman and Co.

Structural Reading Materials Kit. Syracuse, N.Y.: Singer.

Webster Word Wheels. Novato, Calif.: Webster Division-McGraw-Hill.

Durrell, Donald D., et. al., *Word Analyses Practice.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and World.

The major publishers of basal reading series are: Allyn and Bacon; American Book Company; Economy; Ginn; Harcourt, Brace and World; Harper and Row; Holt, Rinehart and Winston; Houghton Mifflin; Lippincott, Lyons and Carnahan; Macmillan; Open Court; Scott Foresman, and Science Research Associates.

Easy Trade Books for Beginning Readers. While it is important to plan a program so that students develop proficiency in the word recognition skills, it is also important that, concurrent with the development of the word recognition skills, beginning readers be provided ample opportunities for practicing the skills they have learned. One of the best means of providing such practice is to provide students with good trade books with easy vocabularies. The identification of such books and their availability provides for an alternative to text or workbook practice in word recognition. The use of trade books with easy vocabularies allows for practice of word recognition skills while the student is in an interesting reading experience.

Listed below are 30 trade books written with fairly easy vocabularies. The author, the book title and the number of *different* words used in each book are listed.

Emberly, *Drummer Hoff* (30)
Krauss, *The Happy Day* (37)
Krauss, *The Carrot Seed* (45)
Rossetti, *What Is Pink* (45)
Hutchins, *Titch* (46)
Langner, *Miss Lucy* (50)
Hutchins, *Good-Night, Owl* (51)
Williams, *The Chicken Book* (56)
Kraus, *Whose Mouse Are You* (57)
Anglund, *Cowboy's Secret Life* (63)
Alexander, *Blackboard Bear* (64)
Barrett, *Animals Should Definitely Not Wear Clothing* (65)
Bright, *My Red Umbrella* (68)
Geddes, *So Do I* (75)
DeRegniers, *Was It a Good Trade* (77)
Kraus, *Leo, the Late Bloomer* (78)
Balian, *I Love You Mary Jane* (79)
Raskin, *Nothing Ever Happens on My Block* (80)
Kraus, *Milton the Early Riser* (81)
Nodset, *Go Away, Dog* (83)
Nodset, *Come Here, Cat* (84)
Lobel, *Old Mother Hubbard and Her Dog* (91)
Hutchins, *Clocks and More Clocks* (92)
Zolotow, *Do You Know What I'll Do* (93)
Shulevitz, *Rain Rain Rivers* (95)
Lenski, *The Little Farm* (98)
Eastman, *Are You My Mother* (100)
Mendoza, *The Gillygoofang* (102)
Hutchins, *The Surprise Party* (103)
Krasilovsky, *The Very Little Boy* (103)

H. SELECTED REFERENCES.

Bloomer, Richard H. *Skill Games to Teach Reading.* Dansville, N.Y.: F.A. Owen Co., 1964.

Bond, Guy L., and Tinker, Miles A. *Reading Difficulties: Their Diagnosis and Correction.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1967.

Buchanan, Cynthia Dee, and Sullivan Associates. *Programmed Reading.* St. Louis: Webster Division – McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1963.

Carroll, John B.; Davis, Peter, and Richman, Barry. *American Heritage Word Frequency Books.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1971.

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10 Comprehension

To aid children in the development of comprehension abilities the teacher needs: (1) an understanding of the levels of comprehension, (2) knowledge of the skills within each level and (3) a structure for teaching these skills.

A. **LEVELS OF COMPREHENSION AND SKILLS.** The three levels of reading comprehension are the literal, interpretive and analytic or critical.

1. **Literal Level of Comprehension.** The reader reads and can reproduce verbally or in written form specific information from what was read. Specific literal level skills include:

- Stating main ideas, main events, main topics;
- Finding supporting details;
- Arranging sequence of ideas or events, and
- Summarizing by restating main ideas.

2. **Interpretive Level of Comprehension.** The reader reads between the lines, predicts or anticipates outcomes, or generalizes. Specific skills at this level would be:

- Seeing relationships between time and place, setting and characters, ideas expressed in the selection, and events explained in the selection;
- Determining cause and effect;
- Anticipating outcomes;
- Making inferences;
- Speculating on what happened between events;
- Forming sensory images and impressions;
- Sensing author's intent and mood;
- Generalizing;
- Appreciating humor and plot;
- Classifying ideas;
- Comparing and contrasting;
- Identifying and evaluating character traits;
- Interpreting figurative and idiomatic language – metaphore, simile, hyperbole, personification, colloquialism and slang;
- Reacting to the mood or tone of a selection;
- Recognizing emotional reactions and motives, and
- Recognizing story problems and plot structure.

3. **Analytic or Critical Level of Comprehension.** This is the level at which the reader reads with an open mind in search of as much information as is available on a topic to compare and evaluate materials read. Specific skills at this level would be:

- Drawing conclusions;
- Judging quality, value, accuracy, truthfulness and style;
- Finding information to prove or disprove a statement;
- Relating story experiences to personal experiences;

- Comparing with a work of a similar nature;
- Distinguishing between emotional and reasoned reactions;
- Distinguishing fact from fancy;
- Distinguishing fact from opinion;
- Evaluating author's attitude;
- Evaluating and reacting to ideas in light of the author's purpose;
- Evaluating and solving problems;
- Evaluating summaries;
- Forming an opinion;
- Judging reasonableness and relevancy, and
- Making judgments.

B. **STRUCTURE FOR TEACHING.** The teacher must not only teach comprehension skills but must also continually reinforce and provide opportunities for students to use the skills.

1. **Approaches to Teaching Comprehension Skills.** One approach that can be effectively used in teaching inference is as follows:

(1) Select a paragraph in which the author has inferred an idea but not directly stated it. The teacher and children read the paragraph together. The teacher then states the inference and the clues in the context of the paragraph that support the inference.

(2) Using a second paragraph that all have read, the teacher states the inference and asks the pupils to supply the contextual clues that support the inference.

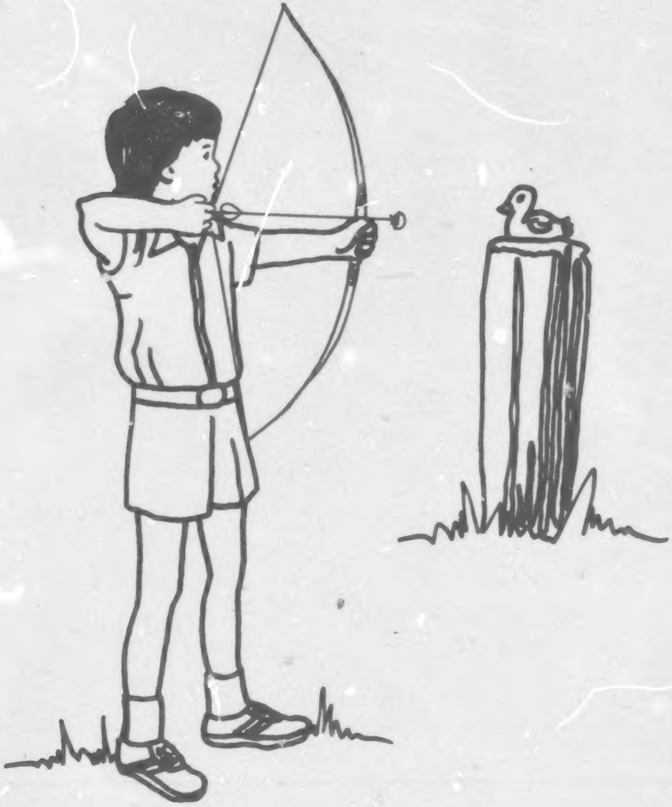
(3) Using a third paragraph that all have read, the teacher restates the contextual clues and asks the pupils to state the inference

(4) Using a fourth paragraph, the teacher asks the pupils to state the inference and the supporting contextual clues.

These steps in developing inferences could be accomplished in one lesson or in a series of lessons, depending on the ability of the children. The important thing is that this approach provides the pupil with a step-by-step approach in using the skill and also reinforces the importance of and the relationship between the inference and the contextual clues that support the inference.

This step-by-step approach can be adapted to fit any of the skills listed earlier in this section. This is, of course, an approach to developing a skill through discussion.

Illustrations may be used in an equally effective manner for the development of comprehension skills. For example, study the illustration below.



Using an illustration such as this, the teacher might ask:

- What do you see in the illustration? (literal)
- What is the boy doing? (literal)
- Is that a real duck? Why or why not? (interpretive)
- Does the boy want to kill or hurt the duck? Why or why not? (interpretive)
- How old do you think the boy is? Why do you think he is that age? (interpretive)
- What time of year or season do you think it is in the illustration? Why do you think that? (interpretive)
- Do you think the boy will hit the target with the arrow? Why or why not? (analytic)
- What do you think will happen next? Why do you suggest that? (analytic)

Instruction of the types listed is necessary. For too long we have assumed that children pick up these skills as a by-product of workbooks and discussions about the skills.

2. **Continual Reinforcement of Skills.** Probably one of the most effective ways of reinforcing the comprehension of the materials read is through discussion that requires the use of the skills at each of the three comprehension levels.

3. **Using Reading Guide Questions.** Comprehension is likely to be more effective if pupils know in advance what it is they are to gain or understand from the reading of a given selection.

Reading guide questions can usually be placed in one or more of the following five categories:

(1) The pupils are directed to read to find the answer to a given question.
(2) The pupils are directed to read to verify a given statement.
(3) The pupils are directed to read to ask a question which a sentence or a group of sentences will answer.
(4) The pupils are directed to read to decide whether a sentence or a group of sentences supplies information on a given problem.
(5) The pupils are directed to read to draw a conclusion from facts given.

These types of reading guide questions are listed here in order of difficulty, from the easiest to the most difficult.

The first type of question is parallel with the type we have asked students to answer following a chapter of study. The primary difference is the questions are used prior to the reading process.

The second type of question lends itself to the reading of material related to class discussion. Contemporary topics of interest, such as ecology or reviewing what the critics say concerning a production on television, are examples of topics that would lead to this type of reading.

The third type of question is not only excellent for guiding reading but is also an excellent diagnostic device for determining how effectively children understand what they read.

The fourth type of question gives students practice in finding supporting details which relate directly to a topic.

The fifth type of question requires the student to synthesize information he has read.

When using the reading guide questions in the classroom, the following guide lines should be kept in mind:

- The problems should be identified before the reading is done. This makes them more of a guide rather than a test.
- The problems used should cover items that are of importance in the selection to be read. Avoid picky detail types of questions.
- The problems should vary in the degree of comprehension they require: (1) some should require merely reproduction of the text; (2) others should require use of the ideas given by the text in order to arrive at the answer through thinking.

The answers to the reading guide questions can form the basis for class discussion following the reading of the selection. In some cases the answers to the questions form an excellent starting point for the discussion. Comprehension is more effectively developed when questions are asked in sequential order.

4. **Using a Taxonomy in Guiding Discussions.** Any taxonomy is based on the developmental nature of thinking and proceeds, as does all learning, from the concrete to the abstract. The taxonomy suggested here for classroom use has been adapted from Kellogg's work in the area of listening comprehension and is related to the Taba Taxonomy. The questioning procedure is based on five steps, or levels: (1) *recall*, (2) *analysis*, (3) *synthesis*, (4) *evaluation* and (5) *application*.

> *Recall.* This is the literal level, the level at which the child recalls or recognizes information from the material which has been read. The comprehension skills involved in questions at this level are those listed earlier as literal level skills.
>
> *Analysis.* This level of questions would involve comprehension skills listed earlier as interpretive skills. In the sequence lesson it might be asked, "Why must the events be in this order?" In a character analysis lesson it could be asked, "Why do you suppose the character was this way?" or "Why is the character important to the story?"
>
> *Synthesis.* At the synthesis level the reader is usually asked to relate the material to his own experience background. In the sequence lesson we might ask, "What might happen if we rearranged the order of some of the events?" In the character analysis lesson we might ask, "What if this character were different? What might he have done then?" This is the level at which we take a close look at motives, actions and reactions of the characters.
>
> *Evaluation.* We may ask the students to draw a conclusion or to form a judgment. In the sequence lesson we could ask, "Why is it important to have the events in correct sequence?" In the character analysis lesson we might ask, "Do you know any persons in real life who are like the characters in the story?" or "Would you like to have one or more of the characters for friends or for a next door neighbor? Why or why not?"
>
> *Application.* At this level we help students decide how they might use the ideas gained from the reading and discussion. We might ask a child to solve a problem using the information from the material read, or to solve the problem creatively. Examples of questions at this level would be "How might we use having events or steps in correct sequence in our everyday lives?" or "How might we best get along or live with persons who are like the characters in the story?"
>
> In the initial uses of this approach the teacher may become frustrated in the attempt to keep the different levels of questions separate and distinct. Of greater importance is the attempt to ask questions in a sequential and organized manner. Improvement in the ability to ask questions on different levels will come with time and practice.
>
> Questions in the basal readers may be used as a starting point for the development of questions. The teacher should examine the questions, place them at the appropriate level and, if they meet the purposes of the discussion, use them. One of the best uses of many of the questions listed in the teacher's edition of the basal is for directed oral reading of the material.

C. OTHER ASPECTS OF COMPREHENSION.

1. **Vocabulary.** Words are abstract symbols which indirectly stand for meaning. The relationship between words and meaning is dependent on the individual who interprets the word. The individual's interpretation is dependent on his experiential background. Thus, if we say the word "dog" to a group of people, each individual in the group may have a different mental image of a dog because each has had a different set of experiences with dogs.

It must also be considered that the abstractness of words varies. Some words in our language are more abstract than others. You can develop mental images for "man," "woman," "child," "cat," "house" and "automobile." Words such as "this," "that," "was," "were," "be" and "am" cannot be represented by a mental picture. Words for which we can more readily form mental images are easier to learn.

Vocabularies may be increased through learning new words and through learning multiple meanings of words already known. Many children encounter the word "run" and think only of the physical activity. *The Thorndike Barnhart Intermediate Dictionary* lists 37 definitions for "run." Consequently, a child who encounters the sentence "If I run, I will run my hose on the hose used to hose the dog run" might encounter some difficulty in interpreting the various meanings of the words "run" and "hose." Words may connote a number of meanings depending on how they are used. The only manner in which these understandings can be developed effectively is through the wide use of words with multiple meanings in verbal discussion and contextual situations.

Development of the understanding that words have meaning only in context is indicated when we consider a large number of common words such as "separate," "lead," "read," "report," "envelope," "refuse" and "present." In any situation in which words are presented for purposes of vocabulary development, the words should be presented in context. Context clues help students with both the pronunciation and meaning of the word.

The directive for a child to look up a word in the dictionary without a chance to discuss and verbalize is ineffective. The discussion and verbalization may provide the child with the context in which to isolate or identify the appropriate meaning. The verbalizing of ideas is essential to the internalizing of learning.

One approach that can be highly effective for developing multiple meanings of words is a form of sentence writing activity. The challenge is: Using a common word, create a sentence that uses the word more than once. Through this activity it is possible that children may discover a need to use the dictionary. Motivation for using the dictionary is internal rather than imposed. The sentences will be shared and discussed with other members of the class or group.

Multiple meanings of words can also be developed by placing the students in groups or teams. Give each group a different word and challenge each to see how many meanings or uses for their word they can find. Common words such as "run," "stock," "base" and "pin" are particularly useful in this approach. If the teacher wishes, extra points can be given for examples of these words the students find in newspapers, magazines or other sources.

An approach that can be highly effective for developing vocabulary and encouraging the use of the dictionary is a game called *Stump the Teacher.* The rules are as follow:

> The student selects any word he feels that the teacher might not know. The student asks the teacher what the word means. If the teacher can give an acceptable definition for the word, the teacher gets the point. If the teacher cannot define the word, the student gets the point if he can define the word, spell it and use it correctly in a sentence. Point keeping is simplest if students are on their honor to keep their own scores. A student may earn additional points each time he uses the word correctly in a speaking or a writing situation. This, of course, encourages the reuse and reinforcement of new vocabulary. It is also a subtle way of encouraging students to select words which they will be most likely to use in speaking and writing situations.

Wordo is another effective means of developing vocabulary. This game is played like bingo on a grid of squares; each square is large enough to have a word written in it. The grids may be 3 squares by 3 squares (nine words), 4 x 4 (16 words), 5 x 5 (25 words) or larger, depending on the number of words the teacher wishes to use. The rules for *Wordo* are:

> The words to be used in the game are selected. These may be new words, words to be reinforced and reviewed, or words from any of the subject areas. The teacher pronounces the words one at a time. Students write each word in any square they choose. (The teacher should remind students that this is not a spelling test. Spelling becomes important if the students cannot read the words after they have written them.) Once the grids are completed, the game begins. The teacher reads the definition for one of the words. As the student finds the word, he crosses it out or places a marker on it. The first student to fill an entire row horizontally, vertically or diagonally is the winner. The teacher should be sure to check that the words crossed out match the definitions. Remember, there is no "free space" in the middle of the grid. Thus, one more word can be included. This game has a high degree of utility as it can be used for the development of vocabulary words related to any or all of the content areas included in the curriculum. Also, the game is highly motivating for almost all children. It may need to be adapted to fit the particular classroom situation.

Vocabulary can be further developed through the compilation of tired or over-used words. This is most effective if the words chosen are the words the students in the class over-use. The words can easily be found in the speaking and writing of the students. Such a list will usually include words such as "nice," "cute," "beautiful," "awful," "neat." The next step is to find as many synonyms for these words as the students can find. The words listed alphabetically along with their synonyms on pages in a loose-leaf notebook will serve as a student-developed thesaurus. The result is more interesting writing and speaking on the part of the students.

The thesaurus is an excellent source for developing vocabulary, but it does have a major built-in problem. It assumes the child knows the appropriate context for each of the synonyms presented. For example, two of the synonyms provided for "beautiful" are "glamorous" and "exotic." The ideas implied by these words can be quite different. The thesaurus, whether it is commercial or student-developed, should be used in the classroom with much direction and discussion.

Attention should be given to both the introduction and the continued reinforcement and use of words. Strive to create student interest in words rather than requiring that words be learned. The following suggestions should be considered:

- The teacher should stimulate students' interest in words through the use of new and interesting words.
- New words or words used in interesting or unusual ways in newspapers and magazines may be brought to class by the teacher and students. A carefully dropped "parsimonious" may be very intriguing.
- Encourage children to ask questions about words they hear and may not understand.
- Encourage children to incorporate new words into their speaking and writing.

Activities for the development of synonyms, antonyms and homonyms are usually abundant in commercially prepared materials. These may be used effectively for diagnostic purposes. For teaching these forms of vocabulary, the use of these activities may be limited. The teaching of these aspects, as with other forms of vocabulary, requires a great deal of discussion and use of the words in both verbal and written context. Reinforcement can be provided through the use of the bingo approach – one set of words on the grid, the other set used as clues. Crossword puzzles can also be used to develop ability with synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms.

Root Words. Root words are usually developed as a part of the students' sight vocabulary. If these words are presented in context rather than in isolation, there is a much better chance that the students will learn the meanings of the words.

Prefixes. The teacher should be aware that prefixes are important for three reasons: (1) They may be affixes to the beginning of a root word. (2) They change the meaning of the root word. (3) They usually add one or more separate syllables to the word.

If the teacher is in doubt as to which prefixes to introduce first, the following suggestions may be helpful.

- Refer to the basal reading series used in the classroom.
- If a basal series is not available, or if one or more students have not mastered work with prefixes, the list included on page 80 is suggested. The list provided there includes the most frequently used prefixes in the English language.
- It is suggested that children be taught to count from one through 10, plus a few more number words, in both Latin and Greek. The Latin and Greek words for these numbers are also frequently used prefixes in English. The following list illustrates a number of prefixes derived from Latin and Greek words:

	Latin	**Greek**
one	*uni-* unify, unicorn, unilateral, uniform, unicycle	*mono-* monolith, monogamy, monologue, monotone
two	*du-, di-, dic-* duet, duplicate, dual, diploma, dilemma, dichotomy, dichromatic	*bi-* biennial, bicycle, biped, bigamy, bisect, bicameral, bipartisan
three	*tri-* triple, triplet, triplicate, triennial, trivet, triangle, trident, tricycle	*tri-* trilogy, triad, trigonometry, tripod

	Latin	**Greek**
four	*quad-, quadri-* quadruplets, quadruple, quadrant, quadrangle, quadrille, quadruped, quatrain	*tetra-* tetrameter, tetrahedron, tetralogy, tetrarch
five	*quin-, quint-* quintet, quintuplets, quintessence	*penta-* pentagon, pentateuch, pentameter, pentathlon
six	*sex-* sextet, sextant, sextuple, sexagenarian	*hex-* hexagon, hexameter, hexapod
seven	*sept-, septem-* September, Septuagenarian Septuagint	*hept-* heptagon, heptameter, heptarchy, Heptateuch
eight	*octo-* octave, octet, octogenarian, October	*octa-* octagon
nine	*novem-, nona-* November, novena, nonagenarian	*ennea-* ennead
ten	*decem-, dec-, decim-* decimal, decimate, December, decennial, decibel	*deca-, dec-* decalog, decathlon, decade, *Decameron*
one hundred	*cent-, centi-* centipede, centigrade centimeter, century, centenary, centennial, centurion	*hecto-* hectograph, hectogram
one thousand	*mill-, mille-* million, milligram, mile, millennium, millipede	*kilo-* kilogram, kilowatt, kilometer
many	*multi-* multitude multiangular, multiply	*poly-* polygon, polygamy

Suffixes. A suffix is added to the end of the root word. A suffix may change the part of speech of the root word. For example, the suffix "er," meaning "one who does," may be added to the verb "work" to form the noun "worker."

In general it will be found that the suffixes are more difficult to learn. A large number of the meanings of the suffixes are "state of being" meanings. This tends to be a more difficult concept for children to grasp.

Teaching suggestions similar to those for prefixes are included and are made here in the following.

Inflectional Endings. This is probably the least known of the structural elements. Many commercial reading programs refer to inflectional endings as suffixes. In actuality, they are not the same. The inflectional ending modifies the meaning of a root word. Common inflectional endings include: (1) plural forms, -s, -es, -ies; (2) possessive forms, -'s, '; (3) third person singular verbs, -s; (4) past tense verb form, -ed; (5) the present participle, -ing, and (6) the comparative forms of adverbs, -er, -est.

In working with all structural forms of words, much emphasis needs to be placed on meaning. The meaning is probably more important than the form of the structural element.

Games and word building activities are useful in promoting students' abilities in the use of structural elements. A starter list is included below.

> The bingo approach is quite effective. The structural elements go in the squares. The teacher reads the definitions of the prefixes, suffixes or inflectional endings.
>
> Word building activities include: The teacher starts with any root word (verbs tend to work best). Have students add prefixes and/or suffixes one at a time. Each time a prefix or suffix is added, the student gives the new complete definition of the word. This works well with real words, but is even more fun when the result is an imaginary, class-developed word.
>
> In introducing a lesson on prefixes or suffixes start with an interesting word such as "antidisestablishmentarianism." This also works well for the introduction to a lesson on syllabication.

The following lists of additional information concerning prefixes and suffixes can be used to develop other activities which may be of assistance in extending comprehension:

Additional Information Concerning Prefixes

Negative Prefixes

Prefix	Its Meaning	Prefixed Word	Word Meaning
un-	not	unaware	not aware
in-	not	inactive	not active
im-	not	impassable	not passable
ir-	not	irremovable	not removable
il-	not	illegal	not legal
non-	not	nonsalable	not salable
non-	without	nonprofit	without profit
dis-	not	disobey	not obey
dis-	wrongly	displace	place wrongly
mis-	wrong	misspell	spell wrong

Prefix	Its Meaning	Prefixed Word	Word Meaning
anti-	not	antisocial	not social
anti-	against	antiunion	against union

Indicating Relationships

co-	with	coexist	live with
com-	with	commingle	mingle with
con-	with	converse	talk with
col-	with	collaborate	work with
cor-	with	corroborate	agree with
counter-	against	countercheck	check against
contra-	opposite	contradict	say the opposite
hyper-	overly, in excess	hypersensitive	overly sensitive
inter-	between, within	international	between nations
super-	above, beyond	superman, supernatural	above average man

Indicating Time and Number

pro-	ahead (prior to)	provide	look ahead
pre-	before	prefix	fix before
post-	after	postdate	date after
uni-	one	uniform	one form
bi-	two	biweekly	two times a week
tri-	three	tricycle	three wheel
hemi-	half	hemisphere	half of a sphere
semi-	partly	semiconscious	partly conscious
multi-	many	multicolored	many colored

Indicating Direction or Occurrence

retro-	back	retroactive	active at earlier date
e-	out, from	erupt	burst out of
ex-	former, out	exconvict	former convict
ex-	out	expel	force out
in- (en-)	in, into	indent, ingrown	dent in, grown in
per-	through	perennial	through the year
re-	back	return	turn back
re-	again	reprint	print again
de-	down	descend	go down
de-	away	depart	go away
de-	from	derail	go from rail
circum-	around	circumnavigate	sail around
sub-	lesser	sub-official	lesser official
sub-	under	submarine	under water
trans-	across	transatlantic	across the Atlantic

Ten Useful Latin Prefixes

Prefix	General Meaning	Examples
ab-,a-, abs-	from, away from	abdicate, abrupt, abjure, absent, averse, abstain, abscond

Prefix	**General Meaning**	**Examples**
ad-, ac-, af-, ag-, al-, an-, ap-, ar-, as-, at- (Note that the meaning of ad- with the root has brought doubling of the letters.)	to, toward	adhere, adduce, advocate, accord, accumulate accept, affiliate, affix, affect, aggregate, aggression, allocate, allude, allot, annex, announce, appear, appendage, applaud, arrogate, attest, attempt, attendance, aggravate
ante-	before	antecedent, antedate, antediluvian
circum-	around	circumvent, circumspect. circumscribe, circumlocation
com-, con-, col-, cor-, cog-, co-	with, together, very	correlate, corrupt, cognition, cognate, coexist, coeducation, commerce, compulsion, commotion, complicate, congenial, conclusive, contiguous, collusion, colleague, collateral, corrode, coagulate
contra-, contre	against, opposing	contradict, contraband, contravene
de-	down, from, completely, reversing	demolish, desert, degrade, devoid, destiny, decentralize, decontaminate
dis-, di-, dif-	from, away, apart, negation	dismiss, dissent, disagree, distort, disperse, digress, divert, differ, diffuse, diffident
ex-, e-, ef-	away, from, out, completely	expirate, extract, extort, expose, eradicate, educate, eliminate, elongate, evoke, effect, efficient
ex-	former	ex-president, ex-wife
extra-, extro-	outside, beyond	extramural, extravagant, extrovert, extraordinary

Ten More Prefixes

in-, (il-, im-, ir-) (used with nouns and verbs)	into, in, within	induce, influence, inject, illumine, immigrate, imbibe, irrigate, irradicate
in-, (il-, im-, ir-) (used with adjectives) (Note that because of pronunciation, the in- has changes to il-, im-, ir-. This explains why we must have double letters in these and similar words.)	not, opposing	incapable, insoluble, indecent, illiterate, illegal, illegible, implacable, immodest, immoral, irreverent, irregular, irrational

Prefix	General Meaning	Examples
inter-	among, between	interact, intersperse, interrupt
intro-, intra-	inward, within	introduce, introvert, intramural, intravenous
non-	not	nonentity, nonessential, nonsense
ob-, oc-, op-	over, against, facing, completely	obtrude, obstruct, object, occlude occult, offend, oppose, opponent, obdurate, obnoxious
per-	through, throughout, very	pervade, permeate, perennial, perspicuous, pernicious, pertinacious
post-	after, following	postscript, postpone, posterior
pre-	before, in front of	prevent, preclude, preside
pro-	forward, forth, for, in favor of	proponent, processions, propulsion, proslavery, pronoun
re-	back, backward, again	respond, revoke, recur, reject, reiterate
retro-	back, backward	retrospect, retroactive, retrogression
se-	away, aside	secure, seclusion seduce, secret
semi-	half	semiconscious, semiannual, semicircular, semifinal
sub- (suc-, suf-, sug-, sum-, sup-, sus-) (Note that the b has changes before c, f, g, m and p, thus giving the word a double letter.)	under, beneath	submarine, submerge, subconscious, succumb, succinct, suffuse, suffix, suggest, supplant, supply, support, subject, sustain

Seven Adjective Suffixes

Suffix	General Meaning	Examples
-able, -ible	capable of, worthy of, that may be	culpable, tolerable, laudable, forcible, legible, visible
-al, -ical	resembling, full of, belonging to	thermal, primal, residual, allegorical, radical, vertical
-ar, -ular, -ary	like, pertaining to	circular, insular, regular, legendary, primary, sedentary
-ate	being, possessing	sedate, desolate, proportionate

Suffix	**General Meaning**	**Examples**
-ive	like, resembling, relating to	native, active, delusive, connective
-ic, -ical	belonging to, full of	cryptic, anemic, fantastic, whimsical, quizzical
-our, -uous, -ious	full of, characterized by	tumultuous, timorous, sagacious, furious, gracious, riotous

Six Verb Suffixes

-ate	become, form, treat	animate, sublimate, alleviate, perpetuate, aggravate
-en	become, cause to be or have become	weaken, strengthen, moisten
-esce	become, grow, continue	convalesce, coalesce, effervesce

(We are most familiar with words which take another step to form adjectives or nouns: obsolescent, quiescent, adolescent, incandescence, fluorescence, convalescence, acquiescence.)

-ify	to make, cause, to have	glorify, fortify, deify, liquefy, humidify
-ize	make, cause to be, treat with	economize, sterilize, patronize, apologize, criticize

(Because -ize can be tacked onto so many words, it has been overworked by advertisements which have coined words like tenderize, slenderize, silkenize, softenize, sanitize, etc. Some of these words may become reputable, but they are not in the dictionary, and some persons dislike them.)

-ish	do, make, perform	punish, embellish, astonish

Seven Noun Suffixes

-cy, -acy, -ancy, -ency	state, quality or condition of being what the root denotes	secrecy, accuracy, democracy, emergency
-ance, -ence	act, state, result	acceptance, vigilance, resistance, diligence, evidence, confidence
-ation, -ition	action, state, result	starvation, occupation, duration, nutrition, ignition, cognition
-ity	state, quality, condition	acidity, stupidity, virginity, gratuity, ingenuity
-ism	act, manner, state, doctrine	criticism, baptism, barbarism, fanaticism

Suffix	General Meaning	Examples
-ist	doer, believer	atheist, deist, anarchist, monopolist, pianist
-ice	act, state, quality	service, malice, justice, cowardice

The prefixes and suffixes of Old English origin are simple and do not give us many new words. Here are the most common prefixes:

Prefix	Meaning	Examples
a-	at, in, on, to	away, abed, ahead, asleep, afoot, astride, aground
be-	about, around, all over	beset, bemoan, bespeak, besiege, belabor bedevil, begrudge, befriend
for-	away, off, from,	forbid, forsake, forswear, forlorn
fore-	before, previous	forethought, forehead, foreword, forearmed
mis-	badly, poorly, wrong	misfit, misfire, mistake, misspell, mislay, misconduct
over-	over, beyond, above	overtake, overcast, overreach, overdo
under-	below, of lesser degree	underwear, understatement, undertake
un-	not, opposing	unknown, uncertain, unkind, ungodly
out-	beyond, complete	outdo, outclassed, outrider, outlaw
with-	separating, opposing	withdraw, withstand, withhold

We also use words like after, before and by as combining forms. Examples: afterthought, afterglow, afternoon, beforehand, byway, bystander.

Here the most common suffixes of Old English origin:

Suffix	Meaning	Examples
-dom	state, condition, rank	kingdom, earldom, wisdom, Christendom
-en	made of, like, showing	wooden, woolen, ashen, golden
-er	one who does or acts	worker, writer, baker, driver, spinster
-ful	full of, marked by	thankful, joyful, masterful, handful
-hood	state, condition	boyhood, manhood, statehood, likelihood, livelihood

Suffix	**Meaning**	**Examples**
-ish	rather, like, suggesting	girlish, warmish, devilish, childish
-less	without, lacking	hopeless, helpless, countless, ruthless, pitiless, penniless
-like	like, similar	childlike, lifelike, dreamlike
-ly	like, in the manner of	kindly, manly, strongly, madly, selfishly
-ness	quality, state	greatness, kindness, cleverness, drunkenness
-ship	condition, skill, office	friendship, scholarship, workmanship, "brinkmanship"
-some	tending to, apt to	quarrelsome, lonesome, tiresome, winsome, meddlesome
-ward	in the direction of	upward, onward, forward, leeward
-th	act, state, quality	growth, width, breadth, length, warmth

2. **Emotive Language.** An aspect of vocabulary development that is related to both comprehension and critical thinking is the noting of words or phrases that play upon the emotions of the reader. Emotive terms basically come in two forms – positive and negative. Positive emotive terms have a positive effect on the reader. They usually make him feel good or in favor of an idea. The words *home, apple pie, motherhood* and *good worker* are examples of positive emotive words. Negative emotive terms are those words or phrases which are intended to make the reader feel bad or cause him to oppose an idea. The terms *commie, pinko, snake in the grass, sinister* and *subversive* are examples of negative emotive words.

Some words can be either positive or negative depending on the context and the audience, i.e., *liberal, conservative, hawk, dove.* Another important aspect of emotive terminology is that the effect of some words may change with the passage of time. For example, during Word War II, *Russian* had a positive effect as the Russians were our allies. In the 1970s this term probably does not have the same positive effect.

Advertisements provide excellent material for the development of the ability to interpret emotive terms. Students can find words the authors use to sway the potential buyer toward one product or away from another. The illustrations used in advertisements may also have strong emotional appeal. Instruction in interpreting the illustrations should also be provided.

Newspapers and magazine articles, editorials and letters to the editor provide an excellent source of material for vocabulary work of this type.

Because it is a useful tool in critical thinking and propaganda detection, the importance of developing students' abilities to recognize and understand emotive vocabulary cannot be overestimated. The children we teach today will be tomorrow's consumers and voters. This is a strong justification for including work with emotive language in the instructional program. The objective of the instruction is to help children be aware of the influential terms and to think effectively in spite of these terms.

3. **Typographical Clues.** We must help children understand that punctuation is the author's only avenue for conveying to the reader the manner in which the author intends the phrasing. Phrasing is extremely important in conveying meaning. For example, consider the following: *John said Mary* Who is speaking? What is the speaker saying? How is the speaker saying what is being said?

Without the punctuation in the example above, it is impossible to interpret the sentence or answer the questions. This is an excellent way to indicate to children the importance of punctuation.

The period does indicate the end of a statement, but not necessarily the end of an idea. The next sentence may expand further on the same idea. One of the most effective means of helping children develop an understanding of the period is through their own writing.

The comma is important in determining the appropriate phrasing within a sentence. Consider the following two sentences:

> "Woman, without her man, is nothing."
>
> "Woman, without her, man is nothing."

The words in the two sentences are identical. Only one comma has been moved, but what has happened to the meaning? Instruction in the effective use of the comma can be presented through sentences similar to those above. The teacher may desire a different content for the sentences used. These may fit more readily into a classroom situation.

> "Tom, the cat is on the roof."
>
> "Tom, the cat, is on the roof."

The question mark and the exclamation point may be introduced in a manner similar to the period and comma. The emphasis in instruction in all four of these should center around oral interpretation because all four are clues to interpretation, phrasing and vocal inflection. Having students read their own writing makes them more aware of the need for punctuation.

There are other typographical clues that need to be included in the instructional program. These are most appropriately introduced and taught as students encounter them in their reading. Putting words in bold-face print (extra dark print) is a technique sometimes used to indicate a new word or an important term. Words in italics may indicate a key word or special terminology. Words in quotation marks may indicate to the reader that the author is implying a meaning for the word that is not the usual meaning.

Authors may also use quotation marks to set apart words or phrases which are examples of an idea they are attempting to develop. One of the most natural approaches to learning the use and interpretation of quotation marks is through rewriting the Sunday comics. A comic strip such as "Nancy and Sluggo" can be rewritten by the students. The part in the speech balloons is placed inside the quotation marks and the name of the character speaking is added. Motiviation is no problem in this activity.

Another kind of typographical clue is the elipsis. Only two forms of the elipsis are acceptable, three periods (. . .) or four periods (. . . .). The three periods indicate that something has been omitted from the middle of a sentence. The four periods indicate something is omitted at the end of a sentence, with the final period indicating the end of the sentence.

4. **Figurative and Idiomatic Language.** The interpretation of figurative and idiomatic language is a problem for many children at the elementary level. The following forms of figurative and idiomatic language need to be considered.

Hyperbole. The hyperbole, or exaggeration, can serve as an introduction to figurative language. Here are two examples of the hyperbole: "When my father sees my report card, he'll go through the ceiling." "You couldn't drag me there with a team of wild horses."

One effective approach to interpreting the hyperbole is to discuss with students the literal meaning of what is being said. This should be followed by a discussion on the use of exaggeration to make a point in a more emphatic manner. Instruction should be based on the actual hyperboles used by children in the class. Identify, discuss and interpret the hyperboles and the idea being developed. This can be followed by discussing hyperboles found in the material we read.

Personification. Personification is the giving of human qualities to nonhuman forms of life. An excellent approach in helping children understand personification is through the discussion of these qualities as they occur in the materials the children read and hear. Illustrations, both commercial and pupil-created, can further the understanding of personification. The author's purpose is usually to help young children more readily relate the experiences in the stories to their own personal experiences. For more mature readers, personification is an excellent means of introducing satire, irony and a way of being facetious.

Following the identification of elements of personification in the reading materials, it is suggested that children be encouraged to use them in their own writing and speaking. Again, usage is one of the most effective means of learning.

Colloquialism. Colloquialisms are expressions used by persons in a given region of the United States. The individual who uses "fetch," "tote" or such phrases as "leave it be" is probably expressing himself in a way that is clearest and most natural for him.

An excellent approach to working with colloquialisms in the classroom is to have the class develop a dictionary of colloquial terms. How many different ways can we say the same thing? For example, if one is in Boston and wants a milk shake, why does he order a *frappe?* Through collecting colloquial expressions, the teacher can develop students' interest in language and the expressions encountered in reading material.

Slang. The study of slang is an excellent means of introducing the idea that the meanings of words change. Slang is the jargon of a group of people within our society. This, in turn, opens the entire field of etymology. Students can develop a class dictionary of current slang terminology. It is a fun project, children enjoy it, and it is an excellent introduction or reinforcement for the use of the dictionary. An additional benefit of this project is that children develop the understanding that slang is much less formal and less useful and acceptable because the definitions of slang terms are not as widely known or accepted nor do the definitions remain constant for any length of time.

Simile. The simile is a comparison of two things employing the words "like" or "as." These comparisons frequently include a human quality or feature. Have students write comparisons and include the words "like" or "as." Continue to write similes and point them out in the material children read. Over a period of time similes are learned in a natural manner. One of the most effective uses for the similes the students create is in writing messages for greeting cards, especially valentines and birthday or Mother's Day cards. The similes may also be incorporated into the children's creative writing.

Metaphor. The metaphor is a direct comparison: "The tongue is a two-edged sword." The metaphor is frequently used for descriptive purposes in the reading materials available for children. A natural approach in learning the metaphor is through speaking and writing. Once this has occurred, the metaphor is more easily located and interpreted in the reading materials.

Figures of Speech. This category includes such phrases as "between the devil and the deep blue sea," "It's six of one and half a dozen of the other," "Her face fell," "He counted noses," and "They were beside themselves with joy." Meanings for figures of speech are all on the interpretive level. Many children encounter difficulty interpreting these because children tend to interpret at the literal level.

One effective technique for helping children interpret figures of speech is to have children illustrate them. The illustrations usually depict the literal level of interpretation. The illustrations can then be discussed in light of what the author might really have meant to say. These interpretation skills develop slowly with many children and need much reinforcement.

5. **Context Clues.** If we accept the concept that we read for meaning and ideas, not for individual words, and that words have meaning only in context, it becomes necessary to provide more instruction in the use of contextual clues. Basal readers frequently include lessons or suggestions for using context to determine the meaning of a word. These lessons are necessary. Unfortunately, this is only one use of context. McCullough suggests seven types of context clues with which children should be familiar.

- *Definition.* The descriptive context defines the unknown word. "Tom and Dick lived next door to each other. They were ______________________ ."
- *Experience.* Children may rely on their past concrete experiences. "Jack gave his dog a ______________________ to chew."
- *Comparison with known ideas.* The unknown word is compared to something known. "You do not have to run; you can ______________________ ."
- *Synonyms.* "When the captain gave up, the crew had to ______________________ , too."
- *Familiar expressions.* This requires an acquaintance with familiar language patterns. "As they sat on the bank, Bill expected the fish to ______________________ ."
- *Summary.* The unknown word summarizes the several ideas that have preceded it. "Down the street they came. First there were the elephants, then the clowns, then the lions in cages and then the performers. It was a circus ______________________ ."

- *Reflection of a mood or situation.* "The clouds were black. Scarcely any light came in through the windows. The whole house was dark and __________________________________."

In developing proficiency in the use of contextual clues, there are two aspects of instruction. The first is direct, systematic instruction in the use of context. Sentences such as those listed above may be used. The teacher should ask the child for a word that makes sense in the sentence and the reason for the choice of that word. Teaching through the use of sentences such as those above is an application of the cloze technique in teaching comprehension.

The second aspect is the continual reinforcement of the use of context in reading a variety of material. Simply learning the skills is not enough. Reading materials vary in the way in which they are written. The application of context skills may also have to be adapted. The teacher's task is one of helping children apply these skills in different ways.

D. **ADJUSTING READING RATE TO FIT THE PURPOSE AND MATERIAL.** Rate of reading needs to be adjusted to fit different types of materials and variety of purpose. Instruction needs to be provided in at least the following four rates and types of reading.

1. **Reading for General Importance.** Recreational reading may be done rapidly and with a recreatory rather than a work attitude. This type of reading is done in a situation in which the student must do much reading, with the purpose of merely getting the general idea of the selection. Brief parts of the material may be skipped without defeating the purpose.

2. **Reading for Details.** This type of reading is done in a situation in which the student reads to locate all the details on a given topic or problem. The student must decide which of the details are important to the topic or question. This type of reading is more thorough than reading for general importance. One approach is to go through a brief selection with the students. The SQ3R approach, in which material is surveyed, questions are asked and material is read, recited and reviewed is effective for this process.

3. **Reading to Form Generalizations.** This is another study type of reading. It may be accomplished with a moderate rate of speed and should be done with a work attitude. This type of reading is done in a situation in which the student must read a selection in order to build a generalization or a conclusion. The reader must correctly relate the elements presented, distinguish statements of fact from statements of opinion, think of implications of the information, weigh elements against one another and combine the proper elements to make the generalization. The teacher needs to work through a set of reading selections with the class to help students arrive at generalizations.

4. **Reading to Critically Analyze.** This type of reading is done in a situation in which the student is asked to judge the worthwhileness of a selection or to determine whether a given story is suitable for dramatization or whether a story would be improved by the use of a different ending. The reader may need to distinguish between fact and opinion, to spot contradictions and inconsistencies, to cast aside extraneous statements, to note the author's bias or prejudice and to distinguish emotive expressions from informative expressions. This type of reading is particularly important in the effective study of the content subjects and in reading newspapers and magazines.

In one approach to critical reading and critical thinking, 10 steps must be followed:

(1) State the problem.
(2) Find the necessary facts.
(3) Filter the facts (a form of evaluation).
(4) Organize the facts.
(5) Base conclusions on the facts.
(6) Act on the conclusions.
(7) Change conclusions on the basis of new facts.
(8) Always check author's qualifications.
(9) Always check for recency and currency of material.
(10) Be aware of opinion stated as fact.

If the reader follows these 10 steps from beginning to end he will be in a better position to form a conclusion, a judgment or an opinion.

For other types of reading material it may be necessary for the reader to read with an open mind in an attempt to gather all information on a topic before forming a conclusion, a judgment or an opinion. The main difference between these two definitions is that the 10 steps may not apply to all of the topics that elementary age children may wish to investigate.

The main purposes in providing instruction in critical reading and critical thinking at the elementary level is basically two-fold. The first of these two purposes is to help children think and read a controversial topic with an open mind. The second is to help them be more adequately prepared to cope with the vast array of materials which require critical thinking.

In the development of critical reading abilities with elementary age children, there is one major precaution which the teacher must keep in mind. The total critical reading approach should be applied only in certain specified situations or with specified topics. One of the indications of a suitable topic or situation is the children's interest. Another indication is the availability of a wide variety of material and resources at the children's level of understanding. Too much emphasis on critical reading, particularly when it pushes children beyond their interests and abilities, may have negative effects. Furthermore, the critical reading program needs be designed to fit into the individual classroom.

In developing a critical reading program, the teacher should refer to several other aspects of comprehension development. These include:

- Levels of comprehension skills, particularly those levels beyond the literal level.
- The use of reading guide questions.
- The taxonomy for the development of questioning.
- Distinguishing emotive from informative language.
- Adjusting reading rate to fit material and purposes.
- Development of a variety of study skills.

One of the most important factors to remember when providing instruction in these types of reading is the length of the assignment. The last three types of reading discussed require time. If we want children to read in depth and to think about what they are reading, it is necessary to limit the amount of material to be covered.

E. **MATERIALS FOR TEACHING COMPREHENSION.** Although the basal readers and other commercially prepared materials are available for the development of comprehension skills, a variety of other free and inexpensive materials are also available for use. Frequently the teacher has these at home or they are available through the homes of the students. The main advantages of these materials is their interest value to the students.

Television guides (the kind that comes with the weekend issue of newspapers) are useful in developing a variety of skills. The skill development possibilities are even greater if you have issues for the same week from two different newspapers. For example:

- Using the movie review section: classify movies according to western, romance, science fiction, etc.; classify movies as drama or comedy.
- Compare and contrast two reviews of the same movie.
- Using movie reviews, read to detect motive language, figures of speech and forms of humor.
- Using the entire television guide, develop comprehension and thinking through direct questions: What would be a good western movie? Why did you pick this one? My mother-in-law is coming to visit next Monday. What might be a good program for us to watch? Why do you think so? Can you find a good movie or program for a 4-year-old child? Why did you pick that program?

Catalogs may be used for developing a variety of skills and are also excellent for correlating reading and math of a practical variety.

- Given a specified amount of money, you may purchase five items. The total of the five items may not be more than the amount you have. Be sure to fill out the order blank correctly.
- Using the automotive or bicycle parts section, plan and order the parts you would need to fix your car or bicycle.
- Using the illustrations cut from the catalog, write and illustrate your own story or book.

For elementary age children, the backs of cereal boxes provide many opportunities for highly enjoyable reading. In addition:

- Using the side panel listing of ingredients, compare two or more cereals to determine which might be the more nutritious.
- Compare the fronts of the boxes for emotive language and advertising techniques.

The teacher might also consider the use of:

- Record club catalogs
- Newspapers
- Song lyrics
- Record jackets
- A variety of magazines
- Telephone books
- All forms of tickets
- All forms of bills and monthly statements
- Different types of invitations
- A variety of maps, particularly service station road maps
- Baseball and football cards

Add to this list favorites of your own.

II Study Skills

Study skills are those skills which are considered essential in any situation in which a student may need to engage in independent learning. These represent the skills which are used in the location, the evaluation, the organization and the retention of information.

A. LOCATION SKILLS.

The Title of a Book. The title of a nonfiction or reference book can frequently be used to determine the contents of the book. At the first grade level this can be done verbally with the direction of the teacher. The title of the book may be read to the students, and they can share what they think will be in the book. In terms of comprehension, this involves a form of anticipating outcomes. Work in this area should continue and should be reinforced throughout all grades.

Table of Contents. Information contained in a given section of a textbook can be located more quickly if a student uses the table of contents. Students need much practice in using the table of contents to locate pages or sections of their textbook.

Index. Instruction in the use of the index should begin as soon as children have books containing indexes. In books used at the elementary level the teacher will usually find one of three types of indexes: (1) main topic, (2) main topic, sub-topic, and (3) main topic, sub-topic, cross reference. The teaching of these should be developmental and diagnostic.

Basically, the only way to help children learn to use the table of contents and an index is through direct, meaningful experiences with these tools. Any time the children in the class develop a class book – an extension of the language experience approach – a table of contents and an index should be included as part of the book. This experience will do much to help children learn the use of these tools.

Lists of Maps and Illustrations. Instruction in the use of lists of maps and illustrations should be provided as soon as these tools appear in the books children use. A direct and meaningful use of these lists is the most effective approach. Do not tell children what page a map or illustration is on. Have them use the lists and tell you the page. Also, lists of maps and illustrations may be included in class-developed books.

Chapter and Sectional Headings. The chapter and sectional headings in books are useful for locating specific information. Chapter and sectional headings indicate the contents of the chapter or section. Children should develop the attitude of asking "Will this contain the information I need?"

Lists of Tables and Figures. Lists of tables and figures should be introduced as students encounter them in the materials used in the classroom. Students should receive practice in developing their abilities to work with tables and figures.

Side Headings, Running or Paragraph Headings. These location tools should be included in the instructional program as students need them. See suggestions for chapter and sectional headings above.

Footnotes. Teach children the purpose and proper use of footnotes as they encounter them in the materials they read. Footnotes usually meet one of two purposes: (1) to cite the source of the information or (2) to add additional information.

References and Resources. Suggested references and resources for use in the classroom include:

- The encyclopedia, for those children who can read the material it contains. For children who cannot read the material, it is excellent for browsing.
- Biographical dictionaries
- Subject Index to Poetry
- Subject Index to Short Stories
- Junior Book of Authors
- Atlases and almanacs
- Record books such as the *Guiness Book of World Records*

The Card Catalog. Ability to use the card catalog can be a very useful location skill. However, children seldom develop skill in using the card catalog unless they have frequent opportunity to use it. Problems in teaching the use of the card catalog can be avoided if important decisions are made in advance: (1) Is the classroom or the resource center teacher to teach the skills? How should the other teacher reinforce what is taught? (2) What aspects of the card catalog are to be taught – author, title and subject cards or only one or two of them? What instruction is to be provided in the Dewey Decimal or Library of Congress System? (3) What aspects of this system are to be included at each grade level? These need to be made at the individual building level, depending on the staff and facilities.

In situations in which card catalogs are not available for use, it is suggested that the teacher develop a simplified catalog in the classroom. This can be done with 3 x 5 cards and a recipe box. Children can at least file cards about library books they have read. This can become a rather painless form of written book report. The child will not have to write an excessive amount on a 3 x 5 card.

Reader's Guide. If bound volumes of magazines are available in the building, provide instruction in their use. If enough different bound volumes are available for use, also teach the use of the *Reader's Guide to Periodic Literature.*

B. **EVALUATION SKILLS.** In evaluating material the student encounters through listening or in print, more than skills are needed. Students also need to develop certain attitudes and understandings. These can best be developed if classroom teachers encourage, demonstrate and practice these understandings and attitudes themselves. These understandings, attitudes and skills take time to develop but are essential to successful survival in modern society.

Understandings.

- Any printed statement may or may not be important for a given purpose. No student should be expected to evaluate or think about information without having a purpose. This can be accomplished through the use of the reading guide questions discussed in the comprehension section.

- A given author may or may not be competent to write on a given topic.

Attitudes.

- Of using care to select only information important to the purpose.
- Of being willing to question the validity of a printed statement. The teacher's attitude is extremely important in this aspect.
- Of being willing to use one's own experience to check validity.
- Of asking first for facts rather than opinions.

Skills.

- Deciding on the importance of a given statement. This can probably best be developed through class or group discussion. For example, state a topic or purpose; then, supply the group with informative material. The students decide which statements are pertinent and which are not. This discussion should also include the reasons for selection or rejection of information. Follow-up activities should provide opportunities for children to do this independently. Again, the reasons for the selection or rejection of a statement are equally as important as the selection or rejection itself.

- Deciding on the validity of a given statement. Validity may be based on:

  - Comparison with one's own experiences. In any discussion or work in determining the validity of information, students should have an opportunity to verbalize and share any pertinent experiences they may have had. Such discussions are useful for stimulating further thinking and evaluation.

  - Comparison with other statements in the same book. It is not unusual to find contradictory statements in one book. These should be pointed out to students. Students should also be encouraged to refer to all the information on a specific topic in one source. Comparison of information should be discussed. In the initial stages of instruction, almost all work of this nature should be verbal.

  - Comparison with other sources. This entire approach is the essence of one aspect of critical reading and critical thinking, that of collecting all available information on a topic before judgments, conclusions or opinions are made. It is an open-minded approach. In this type of work, students should always be encouraged to refer to more than one source of information. However, teachers must be careful not to insist that the child push beyond the limits of either his ability or his interest.

- Developing the ability to distinguish between fact and opinion. The teacher's primary role here is to help children develop a basis for distinguishing between the two forms of statements. Television, magazine and newspaper advertisements; newspaper editorials, and letters to the editor are all excellent sources of material for work in this area. Class or group discussion is quite essential for the development of this skill.

- Determining the competency of an author. This is a skill that may require the use of some additional reference materials, such as a *Who's Who*, biographical dictionaries or the *Junior Book of Authors*. Children also need to become aware of the fact that newspapers and magazines frequently list the qualifications of authors. The main purpose is to help children develop a basis for judging the qualifications of a given author.

C. **ORGANIZATION SKILLS.** By noting the organization of materials, students can understand them better.

Main Ideas and Details. Have the children read a paragraph and then state what they feel is the most important information. Children frequently have greater success with this approach. Later this important information can be called the main idea.

Because of the relationship between main ideas and details, it may be more effective to work with them together. In this way children can more readily see that important details work together to support the main idea.

Related to this is the development of the understanding that in a paragraph the main idea may appear in different places: (1) at the beginning, (2) in the middle, (3) at the end or (4) at both the beginning and the end. A variety of placements of the main idea occurs more frequently in materials related to content areas than in basal readers. A wide variety of materials can be used for work in identifying main ideas.

Working with main topics and details in selections longer than one paragraph in length presents some different problems. Main ideas of the individual paragraphs may now become details. The new main idea may be a title for the selection. This is, in fact, an effective method of helping children determine the main idea – develop a title for the selection.

Paragraph Organization. Help children determine whether a paragraph contains a main idea and supporting details and whether it keeps to the topic. The third type of reading guide question suggested earlier, "read a selection in order to ask a question that the material will answer," is excellent for detecting extraneous information.

- It is appropriate to use an outline only when the information outlined will be used for some other purpose such as giving an oral report.
- There is a correct form to use in outlining a selection. Outlines may take the form of (1) a main topic outline, (2) a main topic, sub-topic outline or (3) a main topic, sub-topic, detail outline. The teacher must keep in mind that these forms of outlines are developmental in nature. A child who cannot develop a main topic outline is totally lost with the more advanced forms.
- Simple outlining can be initiated as soon as children can write in the first grade.
- We can verify an outline by using it to give a report, answer questions or rewrite a paragraph.
- The summary of a book chapter or story is usually a restating of a main idea or main topic outline in paragraph form.

Note Taking. Since outlining does not fit every situation or every person's needs, develop skills in using forms of note taking other than outlining. Here are some suggestions that will help children take notes:

- Read the selection. Go back over the article and put down the interesting facts on slips of paper. Put one fact on each slip.

- Write down only important facts. Put them in your own words.
- If you write the reference at the top of each slip of paper, you can check your information if necessary.
- Use quotation marks for the exact words of an author.
- Sort out your note slips into piles of facts which seem to go together best; that is, organize them.
- Write a complete sentence for each pile of notes, for each main idea.
- When you make your report to the class, be as clear and simple as you can. Help other students understand all the main ideas in your report. Be ready to answer questions.

D. **RETENTION SKILLS.** The following suggestions are made for helping children develop the ability to retain certain information:

Awareness. Students need to become aware of situations in which one needs to remember rather than refer to notes. It is necessary to retain only those items of great importance and that we use frequently. Perhaps, for instructional purposes, we should not rely so heavily on a child's ability to memorize.

Understandings. Help children select and retain information by:

- The use of reading guide questions to establish purpose for reading a selection.
- Careful selection of ideas to be retained.
- Directed oral rereading to locate information that will answer questions or specific interests. This method may be most effective.

Skills. Skills involved in the retention of information are as follows:

Deciding which ideas should be retained for a given purpose. A purpose for the reading should be established, the material must be suitable for this type of work, and we should look for ideas of major importance.
Making and using questions to guide and help in the retention of ideas. Help students develop the ability to change chapter and section headings into questions and read to answer their own questions.
Paraphrasing without changing the meaning. An effective approach here is to ask: "Tell me in your own words what the author said."
Following certain rules or procedures for the retention of ideas. For example, the teacher might help students put into practice part of all of the P.Q.R.S.T. or the SQ3R approach. P.Q.R.S.T. is as follows:

P = preview. Look at chapter and sectional headings, illustrations, summaries and the questions at the end of the chapter.
Q = question. Following the preview, develop questions to guide the reading.
R = read. Keep the questions in mind. See if you can locate the answers.
S = study. Review the information and double check information if you are unsure.
T = test. This is a self-test. Can you answer the guide questions?

The SQ3R is a similar approach: Survey, Question, Read, Review, Recite.

When making a summary of material read, refer to the section on organization skills.

12 Reading in the Content Areas

Each of the content areas included in the school curriculum presents special reading problems. If our major objective in teaching is to facilitate children's learning, we must take into consideration the material and the reading skills needed throughout the day. It is possible students may learn more if they are prepared to meet and cope with these reading problems. Consider the following:

A. **VOCABULARY.** In addition to what was stated in the section on comprehension, it must be understood that each of the content areas contains two, and in some areas three, vocabularies.

1. **Technical Terminology.** Each of the content subjects contains its own body of technical terms. For example: *atmosphere* in science, *set, sub set* and *addend* in math and *peninsula* in social studies. These terms must be directly developed with the children.

2. **Common Terms.** In each of the content subjects a large number of common words will be found that have multiple meanings of varying connotations in different contexts. Some examples are *union* in math as compared to *union* in social studies, *foot* in math and *foot* in health, as well as words such as *range.* Consider the differences in meaning: *ranger, mountain range, cattle range* and *kitchen range.*

3. **Signs and Symbols.** Math, science and music possess this third vocabulary. The understanding of signs and symbols is as important as understanding words if we expect children to work successfully in these areas. Some examples are +, –, x, ÷, =,√‾ and % in math; H_2O, 32°F and NaCl in science and 𝄞, 𝄢 and 𝆏 in music.

Many of the suggested activities listed earlier may be used to develop these forms of vocabulary. These vocabularies should be developed during the time students are working in the content subjects. It is not safe to assume the authors of the textbooks have included the needed content to define the terms. In addition to teaching vocabulary, the teacher will need to teach new applications of context clues in each of the subject areas.

B. **COMPREHENSION SKILLS.** The development of understanding is frequently blocked by any one or a combination of items that cause reading problems.

1. **Main Ideas.** Content subject textbooks do contain main ideas – many per page. Class discussions are essential in developing a clear understanding of some main ideas. Use of the reading guide questions and the study skills will also be valuable.

2. **Details.** Some selections may include an over abundance of details. However, some of them may be irrelevant to the main topic. In another selection there will be few or no details that further develop the main ideas. Some textbook authors write using only summary statements and assume the reader will have the background necessary for a clear understanding. Planning for organization of ideas and a great deal of class discussion will be necessary.

3. **Organization.** Many textbooks do not appear to be logically or sequentially organized. Science books are frequently organized around eight fields of science. Social science books are organized around countries or states or on the basis of historical time units. Math books may present a concept at varied intervals throughout the entire book. For example, making change or working with money may be found on pages 37, 118 and 267. Try to develop this concept sequentially. It is suggested that teachers fit the book to the students. It is far more important that children develop some major understandings and concepts in each subject area than it is for them to finish the book.

Sentence Strucuture. The sentence structure used in many textbooks is enough to confuse even the most capable reader. Weak readers are usually totally lost. When one considers that textbooks utilize a variety of sentence patterns unusual to children, including inverted sentences, ambiguous sentences and any number of clauses and phrases, it is no wonder children fail to become excited over this aspect of reading. Here again there is a need for a great deal of classroom discussion to clarify misunderstandings and develop necessary concepts.

C. **ORGANIZING FOR INSTRUCTION.** Many children bring to the content reading situation an inadequate background of experience and frequently a lack of interest. It is suggested that the teacher capitalize on the interests of children. For example:

Fourth grade social studies includes a unit of study on Indiana history. How about planning a bicycle tour of Indiana? Decide what spots of interest you might visit, including historical places, monuments and battlefields. How did these become historical cities? The interest in Indiana history might become stronger.

In sixth grade social studies the curriculum includes ancient Greece and Rome. One approach to developing students' interest in this area is through modern advertising. Why do so many advertisements include the names of Greek and Roman gods and goddesses? What were these characters like? What kind of culture would have so many gods and goddesses?

In measurement in math the following approach might be used. The Department of Public Instruction has listed certain specifications that all public classrooms must meet. Specifications such as a certain number of square feet of floor space per child are measurable quantities. Why not have the pupils make out a report for the principal. A great deal of learning and application of measurement will take place.

The availability of material is important in planning.

- Have as much material written at many ability levels as possible; that is, when the material is available. When material on different reading levels is not available, the teacher might consider rewriting some of the existing material. It is relatively easy to rewrite material but very time consuming. Plan to do only a few paragraphs. These four steps should be followed: (1) pick only paragraphs containing key ideas that need to be developed; (2) rewrite so that you present only one idea at a time; (3) use short, simple sentences, and (4) use simple, clear vocabulary but do not eliminate the technical terms. Always keep a copy on file to avoid having to do it again.

- Have children read to each other. By pairing a less capable reader with a more capable reader, the weaker reader has a better chance of getting through the material.

- Tape the reading of the material and have children follow in their books as they listen to the tape.

- Decide in advance what key ideas are to be developed. Assign only the reading of the material related to those ideas.

- Have reading related to a number of sub topics. For example, have some children read about the agriculture of an area; another group, about transportation, etc. Follow this reading with discussion to share information.

- Include direct and systematic instruction designed to develop the necessary vocabularies.

- Check for background of experience. Provide instruction to develop necessary background understandings.

- Allow for a great deal of discussion to reinforce or correct ideas gained from reading. This needs to be more than "parroting" back facts in answer to highly specific questions. The taxonomy for developing questions discussed earlier can be helpful.

- Read and analyze the textbooks students are asked to read.

In addition to the reading problems already discussed, each of the content areas presents special problems.

Math: Special attention needs to be given to helping students interpret charts, graphs and tables. The material contained in the textbook is frequently not enough. Charts, graphs and tables can be developed by the students, using information they gather, such as the milk count for a given period of time.

Special instruction is also necessary in helping children cope with story problems. It might be better to refer to them as verbal problems. In working any verbal problem there are a number of reading and thinking skills required. To work these problems effectively, students must be able to answer the following questions:

- What facts are given? (Information given in the problem.)
- What facts are asked for? (What is to be done.)
- Are there irrelevant statements? (Information not needed to work with problem.)
- What process do I use? (Determining approach.)
- If more than one process is used, which do I use first?
- Are there hidden questions? (A process or step that must be worked which is implied.)
- What would be an estimated answer?

In teaching pupils to use this approach, direct attention must be given to the use of these questions. For example, in teaching the identification of irrelevant information, use duplicated sheets of verbal problems. Ask students to read each problem carefully and, using a black crayon or marker, cross out the information that is not needed to work the problem. Do not ask them to work the problems. Collect the papers and return them in a few days. Now have the students work the problems. They will quickly become aware of their own ability to eliminate irrelevant information.

Social Studies and Science. Special attention needs to be given to the interpretation of maps, charts, graphs and tables. Special attention is also required in the interpretation of illustrations, diagrams and photographs. The social studies textbook, in particular, contains statements of opinion as well as statements of fact and mixes emotive expressions with informative expressions. Since such statements need to be distinguished sharply from one another, it is important that students have instruction in making the required distinctions and in checking the validity of printed statements.

Spelling and Language Arts. In reading in any spelling textbook, the student must examine words closely to note the exact sequence of letters, to break the words into syllables, to follow suggestions for working out different types of exercises and to follow directions. In reading the language textbook, the student must read slowly and carefully to understand the directions and related material in order to work the practice exercises.

If children are to be able to work with textbook material, they must read slowly and carefully. See suggestions for adjusting reading rate to material and purpose.

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13 Overview, Objectives and Guidelines for Affective Dimensions of Reading

Because the reading habits a child develops in elementary school will significantly influence his reading habits in adulthood, the need for direct attention by the teacher to the formation of children's reading habits within the elementary school reading program is particularly important.

The interests, attitudes and personal values a child forms in relation to reading and literature will exert a significant influence upon the formation of his reading habits.

The development of reading habits which will serve the individual throughout his entire lifetime is unquestionably one of the most important long-range objectives for the elementary school reading program. The fact that some schools have in the past failed to fully achieve this objective is evidenced by the large percentage of adults who are able to read but who seldom read either for information or enjoyment. Perhaps this is because too many of these "illiterate literate" adults completed their elementary school education with the notion that reading was a "subject" they had in school, where they sat in a circle and read aloud. And, perhaps they feel that this kind of reading has little relevance to their lives as adults. Or, perhaps it is because they were "turned off" by too much instruction on how to read and not enough reading for informational and recreational purposes. Whatever the reason for the lack of voluntary reading among a large percentage of the adult population, as teachers we must recognize the fact that children who leave elementary school should not only know how to read, they must also know why to read, when to read and what to read.

If children are expected to form the kind of reading interests, attitudes and values which result in purposeful and personally constructive reading habits, they must be exposed to reading- and literature-related experiences which are designed to promote their affective development in and through reading. This is in addition to receiving direct instruction in the skills, strategies and mechanics of reading.

A. **OBJECTIVES FOR THE AFFECTIVE DIMENSION OF READING.** In order to reflect the developmental nature of reading habits, the sub-objectives for the affective dimension of reading listed above have been arranged into a four-stage hierarchy, or taxonomy. The arrangement of the sub-objectives into a taxonomy simply suggests that before a child can achieve the long-range objective of developing purposeful and personally constructive reading habits, he goes through various stages of affective development in relation to reading and literature. For example, the child must first be aware of the informational and recreational purposes which reading can serve. As his awareness of the purposes for reading develops, his interest in reading and his attitude toward reading begin to form. It is at the interest and attitude levels in the child's affective development in reading that the elementary school reading program can exert the greatest influence. (Obviously, the influence of the reading program can be in a postive or negative direction!) If the influence is in a positive direction, it is more likely that the child will incorporate reading and literature into his personal system of values and ultimately achieve the long-range objective of developing purposeful and personally constructive reading habits.

Although the above description of the taxonomy of sub-objectives serves as a simplistic example of a child's affective development in reading, in reality the development of reading habits is a long and complicated process involving many interrelated variables. In the next part of this guide, basic assumptions are examined and general guidelines are presented which will guide the teacher in helping children achieve the objectives listed above. In subsequent parts of this section of the guide, various means of determining individual children's reading interests, preferences and attitudes are presented. Through the use of the suggested assessment techniques and instruments the teacher can gather data relevant to children's probable level of affective development in relation to the taxonomy of sub-objectives. The data gathered in this manner should then serve as a basis for reading program development efforts and as a basis for selecting appropriate strategies, techniques and resources, which are listed at the end of this section.

B. **GUIDELINES FOR DEVELOPING ATTITUDES AND INTERESTS.** When children begin school they bring with them a wide variety of reading-related concepts, interests, attitudes and values which might be viewed as the "raw material" from which reading habits develop. And although we as teachers may have little control over the concepts, interests, attitudes and values which children have when they begin school, we can play a major role in influencing the kind of reading habits children will take with them when they leave school.

Throughout the remainder of this section of the guide, specific programs, strategies and resources which can be used to develop reading interests, attitudes and values are described. Following is a list of the basic assumptions upon which these strategies and programs are based:

Basic Assumptions.

(1) One of the primary objectives for the elementary school reading program is to aid the individual child in his development of purposeful and personally constructive reading habits.

(2) An individual's reading habits can be influenced by providing him with appropriate reading and literature-related activities and experiences within the elementary school setting.

(3) A primary means of affecting interest in reading (and, consequently, constructive reading habits) is by determining an individual's interests so that reading instructional materials and literature-related experiences which are aligned to those interests can be provided.

(4) The interests, attitudes and personal values an individual has in relation to reading exert a significant influence upon his reading habits.

(5) The degree to which an individual discovers personal relevance and value in what he reads will, to a large extent, influence his attitude toward reading and, in turn, his reading habits.

After considering and evaluating the above assumptions in relation to his own personal and professional value system, the basic question that remains for the teacher is *how to turn kids on to reading.* Just as there is no single approach to teaching children *how* to read which has been found to be consistently "more effective" than another approach, there is also no single most effective approach for developing children's interests, attitudes and values in relation to reading. For this reason, many approaches and strategies for affective development should be tried and should become part of the teacher's repertoire.

C. **GENERAL GUIDELINES FOR CLASSROOM PRACTICE.** The following guidelines for developing children's reading interests, attitudes and values through literature are suggested for the teacher. Some of these guidelines refer to aspects of the elementary school reading/language arts program; some refer to the "classroom climate for reading," and some imply specific teacher behaviors which encourage children to read independently.

(1) *Use children's interests in planning instruction*. Get to know each of your students well. Determine what interests each child has and provide reading and literature-related activities and materials which extend those interests.

(2) *Assure the child's success in the mastery of reading skills and strategies.* Develop needed skills sequentially, teaching only those skills which have not been previously mastered. Make learning how to read enjoyable. Show the child that his listening and speaking skills help him in his reading and writing skills.

(3) *Help the child discover his own purposes for reading.* Show him that reading is not a "subject" in the school curriculum, but a valuable tool for expanding and clarifying his own experiences. Help him learn *why*, when and what to read, as well as how to read.

(4) *Read to children often.* Set aside time in the schedule to read to children on a regular basis. Expose them to creative and colorful use of language in poetry and narrative. Introduce them to the sounds and rhythms of language. Select what you read to children with the same care you use in selecting your own reading material.

(5) *Carefully select books for your literature program.* Become familiar with the best in children's literature. Use your knowledge of children's books to select books for your classroom library and to recommend specific books to your students. Use children's literature to supplement learning of, and interest in, content areas of the curriculum, e.g., social studies, science, etc.

(6) *Be an enthusiastic model of reading habits.* Share your enthusiasm for reading and books with children. Be caught "read handed" in the act of reading for your own enjoyment.

(7) *Fill the bookshelves in your classroom.* Provide a great quantity, and quality, of books and other printed matter within your classroom – especially paperback books. Beg, buy, borrow or make books, but by all means make them available and accessible to children.

(8) *Provide time for independent reading.* Allow time within your schedule for sustained silent reading of student-selected reading materials.

(9) *Encourage children to read and share what they have read.* Set up "sharing" and "celebrating" activities through which children can stimulate the interests of their classmates.

(10) *Develop a literature program.* Design a literature program for your school and classroom which will help children realize the potential good literature holds for widening the reader's world.

Within the guidelines listed above are many specific strategies and techniques for developing children's reading interests, attitudes and values. In the next part of this guide, techniques for assessing children's interests and attitudes are discussed. In the following sections, the guidelines listed above are elaborated on and expanded, and specific activities, strategies and techniques related to the guidelines are suggested.

14 Assessing Children's Reading Attitudes and Interests

Unquestionably, the best way of determining a child's interests is by getting to know him well. The importance of knowing each child personally cannot be overemphasized.

A. **DIAGNOSTIC TEACHING.** The concept of "diagnostic teaching" has particular relevance in relation to discovering children's interests and attitudes since the most useful information about interests and attitudes must be gathered by the teacher on a daily basis. Within every school day there are countless opportunities for determining children's interests and attitudes. Conversations between children, products of their creative activities, class projects, trips to the library, group sharing activities and a variety of other situations in which children are involved in self-initiated activities provide rich sources of information about their interests and attitudes toward reading. The teacher who is aware of the opportunities which all of these situations provide will not only make a concerted effort to observe and interact with children in a variety of learning situations, but will also record those observations on a daily or weekly basis.

Time spent with one child looking through and discussing various books in the school or classroom library will provide the teacher with greater insight into the child's interests and attitudes toward reading and the opportunity to communicate to the child his genuine concern and interest in the child as a person.

B. **DETERMINING READING INTERESTS AND PREFERENCES.** While there is no real substitute for first-hand knowledge about the child which is gathered through informal observation and interaction with the child, various techniques and instruments can be used by the teacher to aid him in discovering children's interests. Interest inventories, questionnaires, structured and informal interviews, circulation records from school or classroom libraries, records of books the child has read and autobiographies written by the child provide valuable clues to reading interests and preferences.

Interest Inventories. Included under the general category of interest inventories are a wide variety of specific instruments. Basically, interest inventories consist of a series of questions, or incomplete sentences, which are designed to elicit responses from the child about his experiences, his likes and dislikes, his hobbies and his use of free time. An interest inventory may be administered orally or used as an outline for an interview conducted by the teacher; or it can be duplicated, and children can read and record their own responses.

Whichever method of administration is used, it is usually desirable to have the child respond as spontaneously as possible so that he does not spend undue time and energy speculating on what response the teacher would *like* him to give. By asking the child to respond rapidly, the so-called "halo effect" will, hopefully, be reduced. Since the usefulness of the child's responses will be determined by his candidness in answering the questions, it is also important that the conditions under which the inventory is administered be such that the child feels free to respond frankly.

In addition to the question-type inventory discussed above, an incomplete sentence, or open-ended, inventory may be very useful to the teacher. Following are several examples of items which might be included in an incomplete sentence interest inventory:

I like . . . .
It's fun to . . . .
After school . . . .
Reading . . . .
TV . . . .
I think that school . . . .
I would read more often if . . . .

Again, this type of inventory may be administered orally, or read and completed by the child. As with the question-type inventory, it is important to have the child respond as spontaneously as possible.

Whichever format or method of administration is selected for the interest inventory, the teacher will probably derive most value from an inventory which he himself constructs for use with a particular individual or group. Such an inventory can be related to a specific purpose the teacher has, and the vocabulary used in the items can be adjusted for the particular children who will use the inventory. Items to be included in a teacher-made inventory should be selected carefully to avoid embarrassing particular students.

In order to derive maximum utility from an interest inventory, it is helpful to review and summarize the child's responses, listing several topics or even specific reading materials or books in which the child may be interested. This summary can then be recorded on a file card so that it can be readily referred to for planning instructional strategies, or for aiding the child in the selection of reading materials. An example of an interest inventory follows.

MY READING INTERESTS*

1. Name ______________________ Grade ____________ Age ________

2. Check the library or libraries below that you can use. Double check those you do use.

   ☐ Community Library ☐ School Library

   ☐ Church Library ☐ Any Other Library

3. How many books have you borrowed from friends during the last month? ____________

   Give some titles: ______________________________

   ____

   ____

4. How many books have you loaned to friends during the last month? ____________

   Give titles of some: ______________________________

   ____

   ____

5. Give some titles of the books in your home: ______________________________

   ____

   ____

6. From what sources, other than those mentioned above, do you obtain books? Check below:

   ☐ Buy them ☐ Rent them

   ☐ Gifts ☐ Exchanges

7. What are your hobbies and collections? ______________________________

   ____

8. What do you intend to be? ______________________________

9. Name the five magazines you like best. ______________________________

   ____

10. Name the three movies you saw last. ______________________________

    ____

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*Strang, Ruth, *Diagnostic Teaching of Reading.* (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1964), p. 108.

11. Name the three radio or TV programs you like best. ______________________________

____

12. Name the state or country farthest away that you have visted. ______________________

____

C. **OTHER SOURCES OF INFORMATION.** In addition to information which is derived through diagnostic teaching techniques and interest inventories, the teacher can also derive valuable clues to children's interests from library circulation records. By analyzing such records it is often possible to determine a child's pattern of interest. And, although the books the child has read may not deal with the same topics or content, they may have other similarities of style, format or theme.

Informal contacts with parents as well as questionnaires and parent-teacher conferences provide opportunities for the teacher to learn a great deal about the child which could not be learned in the school setting.

Autobiographies written by children can also serve as a useful source of information about their interests and preferences.

The utilization of the above strategies for determining individual children's interests will result in useful information in most cases. However, within any given classroom there may be some children who appear to have no well-defined interests which can be capitalized upon for building interest in reading. While it is certainly true that some children lack the desire to read – or at least are not interested in those things which teachers think they should be – it is equally apparent that every child is interested in something.

Before turning to a discussion of the ways in which children's attitudes toward reading can be assessed, it is well to note that interests, like attitudes, are constantly subject to change as a result of new experiences. The assumption must not be made that as a teacher you need only survey children's interests at the beginning of the year and then assign, or ascribe areas of interests to a given child. Certainly a major aspect of the teacher's role includes helping children to expand their present areas of interest while providing experiences which help them to develop new interests.

D. **ASSESSING ATTITUDE TOWARD READING.** The extent to which a child discovers the personal benefits which can be derived from reading will affect, and be affected by, his attitude toward reading. Thus, a child who has developed a negative attitude toward reading and/or reading instruction may also develop an "avoidance reaction" which could preclude his development of constructive reading habits. As is the case with any instructional endeavor, an attempt by the teacher to positively influence a child's attitude toward reading must begin with the collection of relevant data.

E. **OBSERVATION.** The primary means of gathering data about a child's reading attitude is by observing his responses to reading in a variety of instructional and noninstructional situations. Rowell (1972) developed the following observation instrument, *A Scale of Reading Attitudes Based on Behavior,* which can serve as a useful aid to the teacher in gathering attitudinal data related to reading.

A SCALE OF READING ATTITUDE BASED ON BEHAVIOR*

Name of Student ______________________________ Grade ________ Date ____________

School ______________________________ Observer ______________________________

Directions: Check the most appropriate of the five blanks by each item below. Only one blank by each item should be checked.

	Always Occurs	Often Occurs	Occasionally Occurs	Seldom Occurs	Never Occurs
1. The student exhibits a strong desire to come to the reading circle or to have reading instruction take place.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. The student is enthusiastic and interested in participating once he comes to the reading circle or the reading class begins.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. The student asks permission or raises his hand to read orally.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. When called upon to read orally, the student eagerly does so.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. The student very willingly answers a question asked him in reading class.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Contributions in the way of voluntary discussions are made by the student in the reading class.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. The student expresses a desire to be read to by you or someone else, and he attentively listens while this is taking place.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. The student makes an effort to read printed materials on bulletin boards, charts or other displays having writing on them.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. The student elects to read a book when the class has permission to choose a "free-time" activity.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

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*Rowell, C. Glennon, "An Attitude Scale for Reading," *The Reading Teacher,* 25, 5, February, 1972, p. 444.

	Always Occurs	Often Occurs	Occasionally Occurs	Seldom Occurs	Never Occurs
10. The student expresses genuine interest in going to the school's library.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. The student discusses with you (the teacher) or members of the class those items he has read from the newspaper, magazines or similar materials.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. The student voluntarily and enthusiastically discusses with others the book he has read or is reading.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. The student listens attentively while other students share their reading experiences with the group.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. The student expresses eagerness to read printed materials in the content areas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. The student goes beyond the textbook or usual reading assignment in searching for other materials to read.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. The student contributes to group discussions that are based on reading assignments made in the content area.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

F. **ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRES.** Other means of assessing reading attitudes are also available to the teacher. Numerous questionnaires have been developed which are intended to "measure" children's attitudes toward reading. (See Appendix A) Although the data which results from the use of some of these questionnaires is generally no more valid than data derived from continued observations by an experienced teacher, questionnaires can provide potentially useful information about children's attitudes toward reading.

An example of an attitude questionnaire which has been widely used is the *San Diego County Inventory of Reading Attitude* (San Diego County Department of Education, 1961.) It consists of 25 "Do you like to . . . ?" type items which are presented in a written format. The child's "yes" or "no" responses to the items yield a stanine score which is purported to be indicative of his attitude toward reading.

Fiddler (1974) constructed and standardized an instrument for assessing sixth grade pupils' attitudes toward reading. The Fiddler instrument differs markedly from other attitude questionnaires because of the more rigorous validation procedures used in its construction, and because of the way in which it is administered. Of the 100 items in the questionnaire, only 20 are directly related to reading attitude. These 20 items are based upon Fiddler's adaption of Krathwohl's (1964) taxonomy of the affective domain. Because the purpose of the Fiddler questionnaire is disguised by the 80 "distracting" items, the probability of a "halo effect" is greatly reduced. Thus, it is likely to yield a more accurate indication of a child's attitude toward reading.

G. **UTILIZE ADDITIONAL DATA.** Whether data pertaining to individual children's attitudes are gathered through informal observation or attitude questionnaires, such data must be utilized to plan reading- and literature-related activities if it is to be helpful in affecting children's reading habits. If, for example, you find that several children in your class appear to view reading and/or reading instruction rather negatively, it will probably be more beneficial for these children if you place greater emphasis on developing their attitudes toward reading. This can be done through informal "counseling" or "group therapy," in which reading attitudes and habits are the focus of the discussion, and through the use of the various strategies contained in the next section of this guide which are designed to develop children's reading attitudes and interests.

15 Developing Attitudes and Interests: Strategies and Techniques

A. **PROVIDE SUCCESS WITH READING.** Many children enter school with considerable eagerness to learn to read. The fact that children want to be able to read on the first or second day of school presents the kindergarten or first grade teacher with an apparent dilemma of maintaining children's enthusiasm for learning to read while developing initial reading skills. The manner in which a teacher deals with this dilemma will have considerable potential impact on students' long-term attitudes toward reading.

Use experience charts. Children need to experience some success with reading even before they are able to independently employ decoding strategies. No matter what approach or specific instructional materials are to be used for initial reading instruction, early success with reading can be provided by developing "experience charts" which contain stories or experiences that are dictated by the children and recorded by the teacher on the chalkboard or chartpaper.

Put captions on pictures. Children can also dictate captions or brief stories related to their creative artwork. The experience charts or captions are then "read," either by individuals or chorally by the group.

Label classroom objects. Labeling items in the classroom, such as chairs, tables, windows, etc., can also help children establish sound-symbol correspondences and sight recognition of the visual form of words.

By using experience charts, writing captions to pictures and labeling classroom objects, children can experience some degree of early success with reading even before they can actually employ a decoding strategy.

A major part of maintaining a child's interest in reading is to give him continuing success in his reading skill tasks. Diagnostic teaching, therefore, is an important aspect of letting the child feel that he not only is working on a skill that he needs, but also has an excellent chance of accomplishing that task in a reasonable period.

Make each student feel important. The more personal the instruction, the better the student will feel. A significant strategy here is to suggest regularly to a student a selection that was chosen expecially for him. The positive effect of saying "Here is something that fits you" is inestimable.

B. **CREATE A CLASSROOM CLIMATE FOR READING.** Most teachers and parents would agree that there are many benefits which can be provided to primary grade children by reading to them which they could not derive for themselves because of their lack of reading skill. Yet for many reasons – not the least of which is often cited as a lack of time – the practice of reading to children seems to decline rapidly when children reach the upper primary and intermediate grades. *Children of all grade levels can profit from and enjoy being read to.*

Share different types of literature. Reading to children serves many purposes. In addition to the more obvious purposes of modeling good oral reading habits and building children's attentive listening skills, reading to children allows them to experience literature which they might not be able to read, or be inclined to read for themselves. Oral reading to children can also whet their appetites to read more on their own. An exciting chapter or section of a book which is read aloud can often stimulate children to read the entire book themselves. In addition to providing exposure to specific books, reading to children can also introduce them to creative and colorful use of language in prose and poetry, introduce new vocabulary and concepts and acquaint them with the variety of language patterns found in written and oral communication. (Lists of books which are particularly appropriate for reading aloud are contained in the section on "prereading," p. 55, and in Chapter 17.

Discuss to promote interest. Few adults would enjoy being closely questioned about what they have read; yet, some teachers seem to have an inclination to "interrogate" children after a story has been read to them. Ask a few well-selected questions which serve as a stimulus for discussion of the major concepts developed or implied in the selection. In addition to reviewing some of the major aspects of the selection, such questions should also focus upon the feelings and emotions the selection evoked, as well as some of the elements of form or theme which make the story or poem especially appealing.

A discussion of E.B. White's *Charlotte's Web* could, for example, focus primarily upon the concepts of "true friendship" and "the cycle of life." And, while it is true that the events in the story are essential for the development of these concepts, the children's feelings about the events are of great importance. *Charlotte's Web* is a good example of a book which has considerable potential for evoking an emotional response from children. The part of the story which describes the moments before Charlotte's death often brings tears. In this case, further discussion of how the children feel is entirely unnecessary since they have already demonstrated the depth and intensity of their feelings!

Use media, tapes and neighbors. Many excellent cassette tapes, phonograph records, films and correlated filmstrips and tape recordings of children's books are available commercially and can be used independently by children. (Chapter 17 contains a listing of these resources.) For example, a cassette recording of Sendak's *Where the Wild Things Are* (Weston Woods), as well as other recordings, can be placed in the classroom "reading corner" or "language arts center" along with several copies of the book and a tape recorder. An individual child, or a small group of children using a listening station with jacks for multiple head sets, can then listen to the recording while "reading along" in the books.

"Homemade" tapes can be made of an entire selection or just enough of it to stimulate children to finish reading a selection on their own. Such a recording can be made by a child who is reasonably fluent, by the teacher or by someone in the community who will volunteer his raspy or mysterious voice. Live reading by older children can accomplish a similar effect and expand the attractive opportunities the child has to share from the literature available.

Having children read to other children can be used to good advantage for building interest in reading. While this can be done within the classroom, among classmates, it is often mutually beneficial to have older children read to younger children. This not only provides the older children with an eager audience for which they can refine and use their skill in oral reading, but it also widens the younger children's experience with literature and allows them to see older children modeling reading behaviors that they can emulate.

Keep Informed About Books. The sheer number of children's books on the market might tend to be somewhat intimidating since a teacher cannot reasonably hope to read all of them. Because the time required to read children's books and the availability of the books are important constraints which teachers face in familiarizing themselves with children's literature, the numerous sources of book reviews and other compilations of children's books are helpful. Most periodicals pertaining to elementary education include reviews of children's books. Reviews can be found, for example, in the following periodicals:

Elementary English
The Reading Teacher
Childhood Education
The Instructor
Grade Teacher
Early Years
Learning
The Horn Book Magazine
Bookbird
Bulletin of the Center for Children's Books
Booklist
School Library Journal

Reviews of children's books can also be found in the *New York Times*, the *Chicago Tribune*, and in *Saturday World Review*. The *New York Times* also publishes an annual supplement devoted to children's literature.

With the variety of sources of book reviews available, the teacher should have little difficulty selecting books with which he wishes to become more familiar. In addition to the book review sources listed above, there are numerous reference publications which contain annotated lists of recommended children's books. Some of these publications which the teacher will want to consult are listed at the end of this section.

Another useful source in selecting children's books is a listing of Newbery and Caldecott award winners. This list is included at the end of this section. The John Newbery Award is presented annually to the author whose book is selected by a special committee as the year's most distinguished contribution to American literature for children. Excellence in illustration is the criterion used in awarding the annual Randolph Caldecott Medal. Generally speaking, many of the Newbery Award books are most appropriate for independent reading by children in the upper intermediate grades but could be read to younger children. (The readability level of selected Newbery Award Books are included at the end of this section.) Many Caldecott Medal books are geared to the interests and preferences of preschool and primary grade children since they contain numerous illustrations of a very high quality.

In addition to the Newbery and Caldecott awards, several other awards for outstanding children's books are presented on a regular basis. Information about these awards is contained in the Children's Book Council publication entitled *Children's Books: Awards and Prizes.* While most of these awards are determined by committees of adults, the Young Reader's Choice Award, which is presented annually by the Pacific Northwest Library Association, is based upon the preference of children in the Northwestern United States and British Columbia.

Finally, teachers who are skeptical of book reviewers and children's book award committees, and who subscribe to the "best seller" viewpoint to determine which children's books are read most frequently, will want to consult Kujoth's *Best-Selling Children's Books* (1973). Although this publication is very useful, it should be kept in mind that most children's books are probably purchased by adults.

The publications on children's books are helpful in conserving a great deal of time and energy which might otherwise be spent stumbling through the stacks of a library in search of the best books to incorporate in a classroom literature program. Consulting a school librarian or the children's librarian of a university or public library will also be quite helpful. However, the use of these references and resource persons is only a starting point. If you want to become truly familiar with children's literature, you will have to read it!

Read Children's Books. Before you embark on a continuing regimen of reading children's literature, stop for a moment to consider why you need to be familiar with books for children. How can you hope to interest children in books which you have not read yourself? Or, how can you select the "right" books to read to your students if you are not aware of the many exciting possibilities? Furthermore, how can you refer an individual child to a specific book which could help him gain insight into a particular problem he has if you are not aware of the "bibliotherapeutic" qualities inherent in many children's books? Finally, how can you decide which books contain the "stuff of which childhood is made" if you have not sampled many of these books yourself?

Once you have convinced yourself of the importance of becoming familiar with children's literature and have developed a basic reading list, the next step, of course, is to begin reading. A "starter list" of recommended children's books is contained at the end of this section. Read as many books as you have the time and interest to read. Visit an elementary school library and the children's book room of a university or public library. Check out books just as you expect children to do, and read them.

Set Up a File on Children's Books. Start your file on children's books by selecting those books which you feel are the best books. Briefly summarize the plot of the book on an index card; list some of the major concepts the book develops, and, where appropriate, list any bibliotherapeutic value you think the book might have for specific children. Make your book notes as detailed or as brief as you like so long as they are useful to you in selecting books you want to read to children or use in a class library.

In considering which are the "best" books to include in your classroom literature program, take into account the various aspects of style, theme, characterization and plot which are normally used in literary analysis. Try to evalute a book from a child's point of view. Ask yourself whether the book seems to be relevant to the lives of children in your classroom, whether it is likely to have some impact upon them, whether it meets some basic psychological need – including the need to laugh, or, equally important, whether it's simply fun to read.

Several factors within the classroom have an important influence upon children's reading attitudes and interests and, in turn, their reading habits. These factors include the attitude toward reading and books which the teacher demonstrates daily, the availability and accessibility of a wide variety of reading materials within the classroom and the provision for multiple opportunities and encouragement for children to read and "share" the pleasure they have derived from books they have read. The sum total of these factors is what might be called the "classroom climate for reading." More broadly conceived, the climate for reading can extend far beyond the walls of the classroom.

Create an Appealing Physical Environment. Creating an attractive physical environment in the classroom which encourages reading must also be given some consideration. The classroom library collection should be housed in a prominent location in the "reading corner" or "language arts center." A carpet, some plants, a few lamps and comfortable seating can make the classroom library more inviting to children. Furnishing the reading corner can be a real adventure. If no permanent shelving is available in the classroom, shelves can be made from bricks and boards or sturdy cardboard boxes (such as liquor cartons or egg cases) covered with contact paper. Revolving bookracks of the type drugstores often use to display paperback books are particularly useful and can sometimes be obtained free if you are willing to haul them away.

Teachers who are particularly skillful at "scrounging" materials for the classrooms have found that an old bathtub filled with pillows, a refrigerator carton with one side cut out or an industrial-type cardboard drum with a hole cut in its side will attract some children to the reading corner. If extra tables are needed for the reading corner, they can be made from large telephone cable spools which can often be secured free from the telephone company. Seating can be made from large potato chip cans padded on top and attractively painted. Also, don't overlook the local Salvation Army, Goodwill Industries and used furniture stores as a source of low-cost furnishings for the reading corner.

While the physical environment is important, even the most attractively designed language arts center and a wide variety of reading material in the classroom will not accomplish the purpose of developing reading habits if there is no time for children to read and share books they have read.

Start a Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) Program. Opportunities for Sustained Silent Reading of self-selected materials need to be built into the classroom schedule so that reading does not become merely something for children to do when they have finished their "work." It is suggested that at least as much time be devoted to applying reading skills through independent reading as is devoted to the development of those skills through direct instruction. Regardless of what specific reading instructional program or approach is used to develop reading skills, independent reading within the classroom serves as a necessary and logical application of those skills.

Silent independent reading is probably the simplest way of individualizing reading instruction. It is a means of creating a feeling in the child that he and his interests are important to the teacher and to reading activity. Help in the selection process is provided by the teacher if a child appears to need guidance or if he asks for specific suggestions of what to read. While children are reading silently, the teacher is free to hold individual conferences, conduct ad hoc skill development sessions with a small group of children as the need arises or catch up on personal reading.

Encourage Children to Share Reading Experiences. Individualized reading includes "sharing" or "celebrating" activities which children engage in after they finish reading a book. There are many creative ways in which children can share the books they have read. Some examples include:

- Making puppets
- Using flannel board figures to dramatize a story
- Creating a colorful mural, collage or mobile
- Constructing a diorama
- Making a poster or writing a television commercial to advertise a book

- Producing a play based on the book
- Writing book reviews for the school newspaper

Other interesting means of sharing books include the use of films, filmstrips or videotapes. Scenes from a book, for example, can be dramatized or reconstructed using animation techniques, then recorded by children on "super 8" film or videotape for later viewing. Filmstrips can be produced by drawing directly on exposed 35mm film with felt pens, or they can be produced photographically with a half-frame 35mm camera by shooting all frames horizontally and having film developed as a continuous roll. "U-make-it" kits are also commercially available for producing filmstrips. Although such multi-media methods of sharing may appear to be prohibitively expensive, it is surprising how inexpensively filmstrips, films and videotapes can be produced and how much enthusiasm they generate among children.

In helping children decide upon the best means to interest other children in the books they have read, it may be helpful to suggest several possible ways and discuss with them how and when each might be used. Several different means might be suggested during one period of time, and other means suggested later. As children gain experience with various methods, they can devise their own techniques to generate interest in the books they have read. They need only be reminded that their mission is to "sell" the book to classmates.

The best advice which can be offered to teachers who want to foster the development of children's reading habits is to direct their professional efforts toward *inspiring* rather than requiring.

Model Reading Habits. As a teacher, your own attitude toward reading will be one of the most significant factors in determining the classroom reading climate. While you might be able to pretend to be interested in books and reading by pseudo-enthusiasm, you will probably not be able to fool many children for long. Children are quick to detect insincerity, whatever form it takes. Regardless of what you say about reading in general, or about specific books, your own personal behavior in relation to reading will speak loudest.

So, let your actions do the talking; let children see that reading is an important part of your personal life as well as a necessity in your profession. Bring your own reading to school to fill your "spare moments" – be they ever so few. Instead of going to the teacher's lounge during your "free period," occasionally relax with a book in a comfortable chair in your own classroom reading corner. (And don't be afraid to be "caught" there when your class returns from its gym period.) Share your enthusiasm for reading with children. Catch up on some personal reading while children are reading; share what you have read with them.

Make Books Available. If children are expected to develop purposeful and personally constructive reading habits, they must have a sufficient quantity and quality of books at their fingertips. Ideally, every elementary school classroom should contain its own collection of books suitable to the range of interests and preferences of each child in the class. A useful rule of thumb might be to have at least fifteen books in the classroom collection for each member of the class. The fact that many elementary schools have adequate schoolwide library facilities and provisions for regularly scheduled visits by individual classes does not reduce the necessity of creating classroom libraries where books and other reading materials are attractively displayed in a manner which invites their reading.

A classroom library can be built by borrowing a basic collection of books from the school or public library or by asking children to donate or loan used paperback books. Many excellent titles by such children's authors as E.B. White, Ezra Jack Keats, Laura Ingalls Wilder and Maurice Sendak are currently available in paperback. The attractiveness of paperback books in the classroom was illustrated by Fader and McNeil (1968), who described a successful reading program for reluctant readers built around the use of paperback books.

Promote Book Club Memberships. Children's book clubs also offer inexpensive paperback books. Many of these book clubs offer "dividend books" when a given number of books is ordered by children in a class. A listing of children's book clubs is included at the end of this section. These dividend books can be donated by the class to the permanent collection in the classroom. In addition, children are often willing to share their own books by donating or loaning personal copies of books to the classroom library so that other children can read them. Although it is probably wise to check with parents first, the practice of donating books can be encouraged by having children autograph the inside cover accordingly: "Donated by ______________________________ " or "On loan from the private library of ______________________________."

Make Books. Books written and illustrated by members of the class are often the hottest items on the shelves. Furthermore, there is usually no communication gap between the author and the reader of such books. It is fair to assume that children know what other children would like to read about, so there is no problem of a credibility gap either.

Encourage Book Borrowing. Allowing children to borrow books from the classroom library to take home is a practice which should receive consideration since this often encourages more independent reading. A simple check-out system for the classroom library can be instituted by having the children sign their names on a file card or in a notebook kept in the classroom library. Some teachers have found that they can successfully use an "honor system" for lending books. Whatever system is used, it is a good idea to keep the loan policy flexible so that children will not be discouraged from borrowing books.

Promote Book Ownership. Book ownership can be promoted through paperback book clubs; through schoolwide "book fairs" where children can trade, buy or sell used paperbacks, or through a program such as the Smithsonian Institute's "Reading Is FUN-damental" program, which provides children with books either free or at a substantially reduced cost. The experience of many teachers and the success of various "Reading Is FUN-damental" projects throughout the country have demonstrated that children's motivation to read can be substantially increased by emphasizing the pleasure of reading through personal ownership of books.

Include a Variety of Printed Media. When stocking your classroom library, don't overlook other sources of printed media such as pamphlets, magazines, catalogs and newspapers. Although comic books are still a controversial item in many situations, they can sometimes be used to attract the attention of reluctant readers. Paperback books containing cartoons, such as Shultz's "Peanuts" series, can often serve a similar purpose. Once children begin the habit of reading, they can be encouraged to undertake more substantive reading. The classroom library might also contain children's periodicals such as *Children's Digest, Highlights for Children, Jack and Jill, Cricket, Kids* and *Child Life,* as well as copies of the daily newspapers, catalogs, pamphlets and other printed media. A list of children's periodicals is included at the end of this section.

Certainly teachers can, and should, provide children with much external motivation to read by employing the strategies described throughout this section of the guide. Modeling good reading habits, exposing children to a variety of literature, making a wide range of reading material available within the classroom and providing time within the school day to read and share books are highly recommended practices. If creatively applied by the teacher, all of these strategies can be used successfully to encourage and inspire children to read independently.

Rather than placing "stars" on a chart containing each child's name to indicate the number of books each has read, it is preferable to focus upon the reading accomplishments of the entire class. This can be done by making a chart entitled "Books We Have Read" or by making the head of a "bookworm" which is placed on a colorful bulletin board under the caption "Help Me Grow by Reading." The children can then add to the bookworm through body segments on which are printed the titles and authors of books they have read.

Learning why to read is primarily a matter of discovering for one's self the many purposes of reading in relation to one's own personal needs and values system. Helping children make this discovery is not something which can be accomplished in three easy steps; nor can it be accomplished by simply telling children why other people read. Each child must be aided in making this personal discovery for himself.

For a child, learning why to read begins early in life with his first exposure to the medium of print. Gradually, the preschool child who is exposed to printed media by being read to, or through television programs, realizes that books and other printed media contain meaning-bearing symbols which represent speech, and which are arranged in an order that conveys information and/or enjoyment. In addition, most children see persons significant to them engaged in the act of reading. Whether that person is reading a newspaper, a magazine, a book, a recipe or the *TV Guide*, through observation the child begins to form his own concepts of why people read.

If a child has not seen people read, or if no one has read to him, he may be totally unaware of the many purposes and applications for reading. Opportunities need to be provided throughout the elementary grades for children to develop their own purposes for reading. Class discussions might center around the pleasurable aspects of reading as a potentially rewarding use of leisure time and the applications of reading for the acquisition of new knowledge and understanding.

In order for discussions of the purposes of reading to be most productive, such discussions must be related to the children's present life circumstances. It must be remembered that children are living *now* and that they have a whole range of personal needs, interests and values to which reading and literature can be related. Children who are fortunate enough to have teachers who help them discover the ways in which their reading skill can be applied to fulfill their current needs and interests are much more likely to learn why to read.

When the teacher stimulates reading and when a variety of reading materials are readily available, many opportunities can be found within the school to get children "into" reading and thereby help them discover for themselves why to read. Teachers who effectively stimulate children to read tend to make frequent and spontaneous references to reading such as the following: "Hey! Speaking of that, did you read that new book we just got in the classroom library" or "Have you checked some of the reference books we have to find some information which would help you with your project" or "Here's a book you might be interested in reading. Why don't you take a look at it and see if you think it might be helpful."

When children continually meet the right book at the right time, they usually have no difficulty discovering the relevance of reading to their lives.

16 Developing a Literature Program

Defining a good literature program poses innumerable problems. Tastes, interests and levels of ability vary greatly, as do our individual notions of what constitutes quality. Basal programs in reading and in English usually attempt to offer variety and quality across many reading levels. But their limitations must be overcome by a school and a classroom library. A combination of the basic texts and the library resources ought to enable each child and teacher to feel positive about the literature program. Such a positive feeling would arise from the following realizations:

- I can find selections that match some of my interests.
- There are evident opportunities for me to explore other areas.
- Easier or more difficult selections are available if I need them.
- I am being taught to cope with and enjoy the different kinds of literature that school and society offer me.
- My classmates and I can share our feelings and thoughts related to our reading.
- Each of our personal contributions is valued, no matter what its level of abstraction.

A. **USE DATA ON CHILDREN'S INTERESTS AND ATTITUDES.** A reading and literature program should be built around the observed needs and interests of students. For example, it should develop feelings about poetry for an inner city child. He ought to discover first that there are poems about cars and buses and splashing in street puddles. Once he has a sense of self-identity in books, he can be led to the enchanted isles and across the real fields of the world. A teacher must be aware of children's need and interests. These needs and interests can be used as a starting point for a literature program. Traditional favorites of elementary school children – animal stories, mysteries, adventures – can serve as backup material for any children's collection. A representative listing of children's books is included at the end of this section. Using his knowledge of children's literature the teacher can extend children's interest horizons through many and varied literary sharings.

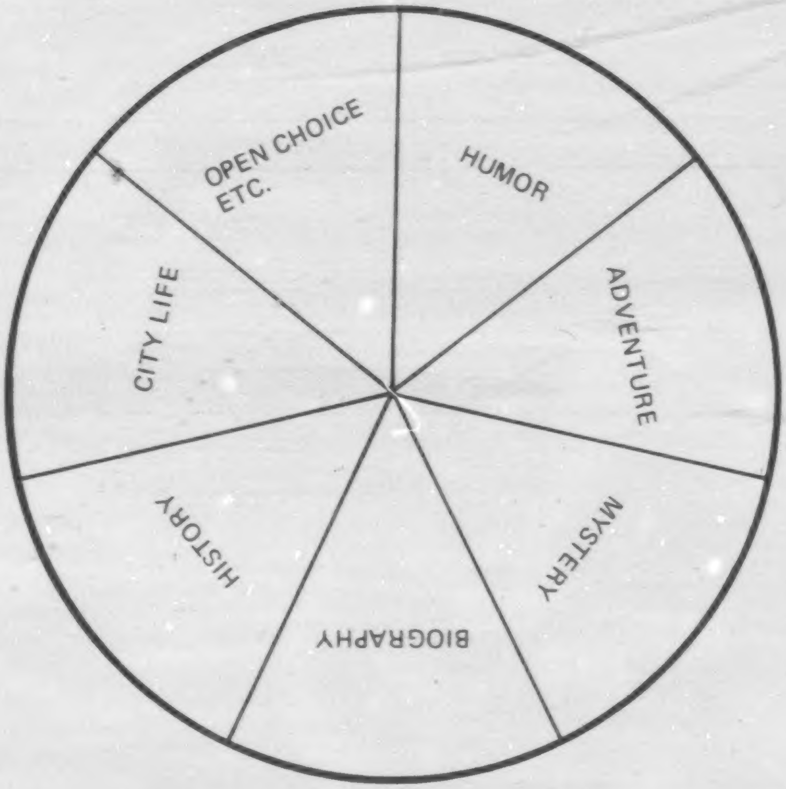
B. **PROVIDE FOR SLOWER AND FASTER STUDENTS.** Within any third or fourth grade classroom, there is usually a significant diversity in reading vocabulary, ranging from first grade levels to seventh and eighth grade levels. Thus, some children in the class have a reading vocabulary that suggests very easy books to start and some have a reading vocabulary that enables them to read books more typical of upper grade levels. The section on resources helps the teacher deal with the reading level problem.

Vocabulary load is an important factor in the design of a literature program, but it must be coupled with that of concreteness and abstraction. Some children are able to respond primarily to those images which appeal to their senses and are thus concrete in presentation. For each of us, concreteness is needed in certain areas. If we are not highly trained in mathematics, for example, our reading about math must start with concrete items before we can deal with the abstractions in algebra and calculus. *Unselfishness* is an abstract term that may impart little or nothing to a child. Yet, he can respond with a very positive feeling about the spider's concern for the pig in *Charlotte's Web.* In this book Charlotte demonstrates unselfishness in a concrete way. Some children need that concreteness in all that they read.

In a group discussion about different books or about the same book, each child, with his own perspective, both concrete and abstract, participates in book talks. Through listening to the views of others, students can strengthen their understanding of books.

C. **INCLUDE PERSONAL OPTIONS.** One of the major positive feelings a child should experience in the literature program is a sense of freedom. He should have options that lead him in personal directions as well as options that lead to mutual discussion with classmates. Simply telling a child that he can choose his own selections often has a significant effect on his attitude toward the task. At the same time the teacher can exercise direction over that reading.

By having each child complete a reading wheel, for example, the teacher directs the child into a variety of selections. A circle cut into pie-shaped slices identifies the categories to be read. The child selects books, perhaps with guidance from the teacher, and records the title and author on the appropriate pie slices. A short reporting device is all that is necessary, then, to give the child a sense of completeness. Preferably that report should encourage the child to describe what he thought were the best features of the books.



Revolving book discussion groups formed among classmates provide another means for giving children options. Each month a new set of book selection leaders (book discussion leaders) is selected, and each of them identifies the book that he wants to read and discuss. The other students write down their first, second and third choices, and the teacher puts together mini book discussion groups, limiting the groups to no more than five or six children. A new group of leaders starts the process anew the next month.

Whatever technique is used, a child should have the additional freedom to pursue a topic or an area of literature that intrigues him. The teacher guides him in being assured that the pursuit leads the child in moving toward the goals established for the program and for the child.

D. **EVALUATE THE AFFECTIVE DIMENSION**. One of the surest ways of making a conscious effort to build positive feelings about reading and the literature program is to make it a point of evaluation. Both a year-end evaluation and a continuing assessment throughout the year should be included.

The year-end assessment could follow the lines of this section of the guide:

- Are there clearly elaborated objectives for the affective dimension?
- Are children's interests and attitudes assessed?
- Is there evidence that the assessment is used in designing instruction?
- Is there a wide range of materials to appeal to interests?
- Are children conscious of their options and freedom to read?
- Do children make use of available resources?
- Do children share their reading with their classmates?
- Is there evidence of continuing concern for establishing interests and developing positive attitudes?

By the use of checklists, interest inventories, anecdotal records and objectives in lesson plans the teacher can demonstrate a continuing concern for positive attitudes and the appeal to the interests of the children. A school system and the individual teacher should establish objectives related to interests, attitudes and values. The teacher and the school system should have an ongoing plan to evaluate the affective dimension of the reading process. Once teachers and administrators acknowledge the importance of the affective by placing it among items to be evaluated each year, it is likely the child will see his interests and his attitudes opening to broader, more positive perspectives.

17 Resources for Developing Attitudes and Interests

This chapter contains seven lists of resources which the teacher will find useful in promoting children's affective development in reading.

A. SOURCES OF FILMS, FILMSTRIPS, RECORDS AND TAPES.

ACI Films, Inc.
35 West 45 Street
New York, N.Y. 10036

American Library Association
50 East Huron Street
Chicago, Ill. 60611

Audio/Brandon
512 Burlington Avenue
LaGrange, Ill. 60525

BFA Educational Media
2211 Michigan Avenue
Santa Monica, Calif. 90404

Churchill Films
662 North Robertson Boulevard
Los Angeles, Calif. 90069

Contemporary Films/McGraw Hill, Inc.
828 Custer Avenue
Evanston, Ill. 60202

Cornet Films
65 East Water Street
Chicago, Ill. 60601

Encyclopaedia Britannica
Educational Corp.
425 North Michigan Avenue
Chicago, Ill. 60611

Film Images
1034 Lake Street
Oak Park, Ill. 60301

Films Incorporated
1144 Wilmette Avenue
Wilmette, Ill. 60091

Grove Press
Cinema 16 Film Library, Inc.
80 University Place
New York, N.Y. 10003

Grover Film Production
P.O. Box 303
Monterey, Calif. 93942

Henk Newenhouse Films
1825 Willow Road
Northfield, Ill. 60093

International Film Bureau
332 South Michigan Avenue
Chicago, Ill. 60604

Jam Handy Organization
2821 East Grand Boulevard
Detroit, Mich. 48211

Janus Films
24 West 45 Street
New York, N.Y. 10036

Miller-Brody Productions
342 Madison Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10017

National Educational Television
Film Library
Indiana University
Bloomington, Ind. 47401

National Film Board of Canada
680 Fifth Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10019

Pyramid Film Producers
Box 1048
Santa Monica, Calif. 90406

Society for Visual Education, Inc.
1345 Diversey Parkway
Chicago, Ill. 60614

Sterling Educational Films, Inc.
241 East 34 Street
New York, N.Y. 10016

Texture Films, Inc.
1600 Broadway
New York, N.Y. 10019

Weston Woods
Weston, Conn. 06880

B. SOURCES OF RECORDINGS.

American Library Association
50 East Huron Street
Chicago, Ill. 60611

Audio-Education, Inc.
55 Fifth Avenue
New York, N.Y.

Caedmon Records
461 Eighth Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10001

Children's Reading Service
1078 St. John's Place
Brooklyn, N.Y. 11236

CMS Records, Inc.
14 Warren Street
New York, N.Y. 10007

Droll Yankees, Inc.
Box 2447
Providence, R.I. 02906

Educational Audio-Visual, Inc.
1 Cirmont Avenue
Thornwood, N.Y. 10594

Educational Record Sales
153 Chambers Street
New York, N.Y. 10007

Enrichment Teaching Materials
246 Fifth Avenue
New York, N.Y. 10001

Folkway Records
121 West 47th Street
New York, N.Y. 10036

London Records, Inc.
539 West 25th Street
New York, N.Y. 10001

National Council of Teachers of English
1111 Kenyon Road
Urbana, Ill. 61801

Pathways of Sound, Inc.
102 Mt. Auburn Street
Cambridge, Mass. 02188

Riverside Records
Bill Grauer Productions, Inc.
233 West 46th Street
New York, N.Y. 10036

Spoken Arts, Inc.
95 Valley Road
New Rochelle, N.Y. 10804

Young Peoples Records
225 Park Avenue South
New York, N.Y. 10003

C. AIDS FOR SELECTING CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

American Library Association. *Books for Children 1971-72.* Chicago: The American Library, 1973. A listing of recommended books from American Library Association and other resources, with prices.

Instructional Development Program for the Institute of Indian Services and Research, Brigham Young University. *Bibliography of Nonprint Instructional Materials on the American Indian.* Provo, Utah: Brigham Young University Printing Service, 1972.

Baker, August. *The Black Experience in Children's Books.* New York: The New York Public Library, 1971. A selected listing of books that give a well-rounded picture of blacks, with annotations and age levels assigned to each book.

Children's Book Council. *Children's Books: Awards and Prizes.* New York: Children's Book Council, Inc., 1973. Revised annually, this aid gives a brief explanation of the 40 different awards for children's books and lists the most recent winners.

Eastman, M.H. *For Storytellers and Storytelling.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1968. A resource booklet for the teacher which includes the background of storytelling, how to tell stories and materials in multimedia form to use in storytelling.

Eastland, Patricia Ann. "Read-Aloud Stories in the Primary Literature Program." *Individualizing Reading Instruction, A Reader.* Edited by Larry Harris and Carl B. Smith. Chicago: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1972. A description of some objectives in choosing books and presenting stories.

Gaver, Mary, ed. *Elementary Library Collection.* Newark, N.J.: Bro-Dart Foundation, 1969. A list of annotated print and nonprint materials, non-fiction, fiction, easy books, periodicals and professional books for the teacher arranged by author, title and subject.

Green, Ellin. *Stories: A List of Stories to Tell and to Read Aloud.* New York: New York Public Library, 1965. This listing of stories includes stories to be told, stories and poems to be read aloud and a listing of recordings from the works of well known storytellers and authors.

Greene, Ellen and Schoenfield, eds. *A Multimedia Approach to Children's Literature: A Selection List of Films, Filmstrips, and Recordings Based on Children's Books.* Chicago: American Library Association, 1972. A listing of multimedia on children's books, annotations of children's books, films, filmstrips and recordings.

Griffin, Louise. *Multi-Ethnic Books for Young Children.* Washington, D.C.: ERIC-NAEYC Publication in Early Childhood Education, National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1970. (National Association for Education of Young Children, 1834 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009). This annotated bibliography is not only a response to teachers and parents of Head Start children but an overview of ethnic groups and their lifestyle.

Gusfoile, Eliszabeth. *Books For Beginning Readers.* Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1962. Books for independent reading in the primary grades are discussed with the criteria, value and contents of the books.

Heller, Freida M. *I Can Read It Myself.* Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University Publications Office, 1965. A listing of primary grade books for independent reading, including a listing of publishers and addresses.

Hemsig, Esther D. *Good and Inexpensive Books for Children.* Washington, D.C.: Association for Childhood Education International, 1972. A selection of hardback and paperback books grouped in subject areas and which proceed from a primary level to an upper elementary level. Author, title, price and a short annotation of each book are included.

Keating, Charlotte Matthews. *Building Bridges of Understanding.* Tucson, Ariz.: Palo Verde Publishing Co., 1967. Includes annotated stories for preschool through high school students and different ethnic groups designed to promote in children a tolerance and understanding of minorities.

Kujoth, Jean Spealman. *Best Selling Children's Books.* Metuchen, N.J.: The Scarecrow Press, Inc., 1973. An extensive listing of best sellers by author, title, illustrator, year of first publication and number of copies sold, with a brief description of each book.

Shor, Rachel, and Fidel, Estelle A., eds. *Children's Catalog.* 11th ed. New York: H.W. Wilson Co., 1967-1974. A suggested listing of books with a classified and an alphabetical section including author, title, publisher, date, price, approximate grade level and annotation.

Smith, Dora. *Fifty Years of Children's Books: 1910-1960.* Urbana, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963. The author discusses the changing perspectives of children's literature through the books produced here and in foreign countries. She also reflects on the use of books in the development of a child, the making of a classic and different types of literature.

Smithsonian Institution. *Reading Is FUN-damental: Booklist.* Washington, D.C.: Smithsonian Institution, 1973. A comprehensive guide in motivating students to read through owning their own books. Consists mainly of paperbacks listed alphabetically by publisher and information on reading and interest levels, price and description of the book.

Smithsonian Institution. *RIF's Guide to Book Selection.* Washington, D.C.: Smithsonian Institution, 1971 (ERIC: EDO62095). Indexes books, especially paperbacks, according to publisher, interest and reading levels.

Spache, George D. *Good Reading for Poor Readers.* Champaign, Ill.: Garrard Publishing Company, 1974. This source includes newspapers, programmed materials and magazines as well as books for the reluctant reader, with each title given a reading grade level and interest classification.

Stensland, Anna Lee. *Literature by and About the American Indian – An Annotated Bibliography for Junior and Senior High School Students.* Urbana, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1973. This annotated bibliography includes books covering various areas of fiction and nonfiction and also aids for teachers, study guides and a suggested list of a basic classroom resource collection.

Sutherland, Zena, ed. *The Best In Children's Books: The University of Chicago Guide to Children's Literature, 1966-1972.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1973. An annotated listing of recommended children's books from the *Bulletin of the Center for Children's Books* at the University of Chicago.

Wilson, Jean A., ed. *Books for You.* Urbana, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1971. A listing of 2,000 fiction and nonfiction selections in differing subject areas for the use of both student and teacher.

D. AWARD BOOKS.

This listing of Caldecott Books and Newbery Books is designed to present concept and classification.

CALDECOTT AWARD BOOKS

Year	Title	Author	Illustrator*	Concept	Classification	Artists' Medium
1938	Animals of the Bible		Dorothy Lathrop	Appreciation of Bible stories	Religious	Pastels
1939	Mei Li		Thomas Handforth	Understanding different cultures	Holidays	Ink, water colors
1940	Abraham Lincoln		Ingrid d'Aulaire	Understanding others	Bibliography	Bourges
1941	They Were Strong and Good		Robert Lawson	Understanding others	Biography	Lithograph
1942	Make Way for Ducklings		Robert McCloskey	Coping with change	Realism with animals	Lithographic pencil
1943	The Little House		V.L. Burton	Changing of environment	Seasons	Watercolor
1944	Many Moons	James Thurber	L. Slobodkin	Enjoyment of humor	Tales	Watercolor
1945	Prayer for a Child	Rachel Field	E.O. Jones	Expression of gratefulness	Religious	Lithograph

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* When the author and illustrator are the same, the name will appear under the illustrator.

Year	Title	Author	Illustrator	Concept	Classification	Artists' Medium
1946	The Rooster Crows		Maud Petersham	Enjoyment of verses	Rhymes	Lithograph
1947	The Little Island	Golden McDonald	Leonard Weisgard	Appreciation of nature	Nature	Gouache
1948	White Snow Bright Snow	Alvin Tresselt	Roger Duvoisin	Appreciation of nature	Nature	Gouache
1949	The Big Snow		Berta and Elmer Hades	Appreciation of nature	Nature	Watercolor, pencil
1966	Always Room for One More	Sosche Nic Leodkas	Nonny Hogrogian	Need for sharing and generosity	Tale	Pastel with pen, line
1967	Sams, Bangs and Moonshine		Evaline Ness	Recognition of reality or truth	Tale	Watercolor
1968	Drummer Hoff		Barbara Emberley	Recognition of responsibility	Tale	Wood engravings
1969	The Fool of the World and the Flying Ship		Arthor Ransome	Understanding of people	Tale	Wash drawings
1970	Sylvester and the Magic Pebble		William Steig	Recognition of of what we are is best	Tale	Pastel with pen, line
1971	A Story, A Story		Gail E. Haley	Understanding others	Tale	Watercolor

Year	Title	Author	Illustrator	Concept	Classification	Artists' Medium
1972	One Fine Day		Nonny Hogrogrian	Understanding interpersonal relationships	Tale	Pastel with pen, line
1973	The Funny Little Woman		Blair Lent	Satisfaction comes from oneself first	Tale	Cardboard cutout prints

NEWBERY AWARD BOOKS

Year	Title	Author	Readability Level*	Major Concept	Classification
1922	The Story of Mankind	H.W. Van Loon		Understanding the past	History
1923	The Voyages of Doctor Dolittle	Hugh Lofting		Love of animals	Adventure (fantasy)
1924	The Dark Frigate	C.B. Hawes		Enjoyment of adventure stories	Historical adventure
1925	Tales from Silver Lands	C.J. Finger		Understanding other cultures	Tales
1926	Shen of the Sea	Arthur B. Chrisman		Appreciation of other cultures	Tales
1927	Smoky, the Cowhorse	Will James		Love of animals	Biography
1928	Gay-Neck	Dhan Gopal Mukerji		Love of animals	Adventure
1929	The Trumpeter of Krakow	Eric P. Kelly		Coping with hardships	History
1930	Hitty, Her First Hundred Years	Rachel Field		Enjoying adventure stories	Adventure (historical)
1931	The Cat Who Went to Heaven	Elizabeth Coatsworth		Understanding different cultures	Religious
1932	Waterless Mountain	Laura Adams Armes		Understanding different cultures	Biography
1933	Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze	Elizabeth Foreman Lewis		Understanding responsibility	Biography (historical)

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* Readability levels determined by computer analysis of 1949-1973 Newbery award books from an unpublished study, "Which Newbery Book," by Alden J. Moe and Richard D. Arnold, Purdue University.

Year	Title	Author	Readability Level	Major Concept	Classification
1934	Invincible Louisa	Cornelia Meigs		Understanding responsibility	Biography (historical)
1935	Dobry	Monica Shannon		Overcoming conflict	History
1936	Caddie Woodlawn	Carol Rysie Brink		Coping with change	Biography
1937	Roller Skates	Ruth Sawyer		Understanding others	Biography
1938	The White Stag	Kate Seredy		Understanding historical background	History (mythical)
1939	Thimble Summer	Elizabeth Enright		Understanding others	Biography
1940	Daniel Boone	James Daugherty		Understanding pioneering America	Biography
1941	Call It Courage	Armstrong Sperry		Coping with fear	Biography
1942	The Matchlock Gun	Walter Edmonds		Coping with change	History (early American)
1943	Adam of the Road	Elizabeth Gray		Understanding others	History (medieval)
1944	Johnny Tremain	Esther Forbes		Need for responsibility	History (biography)
1945	Rabbit Hill	Robert Lawson		Love of animals	Biography (animals)
1946	Strawberry Girl	Lois Lenski		Understanding different lifestyles	Biography
1947	Miss Hickory	Carolyn Bailey		Love of the outdoors	Nature
1948	The Twenty-One Balloons	William DuBois		Enjoyment in adventurous tales	Adventure

Year	Title	Author	Readability Level		Major Concept	Classification
			Lorge	*Fry*		
1949	King of the Wind	Marguerite Henry	5,8	5.9	Love of animals	Biography (animals)
1950	The Door in the Wall	Marguerite DeAngeli	6.4	6.6	Coping with change	History (medieval)
1951	Amos Fortune, Free Man	Elizabeth Yates	6.8	8.2	Adapting to different cultures	Biography
1952	Ginger Pye	Eleanor Estes	5.9	7.4	Love of animals	Realism
1953	Secret of the Andes	Ann Nolan Clark	5.4	4.5	Coping with change	Biography
1954	And Now Miguel	John Krumgold	5.1	4.6	Coping with change	Realism
1955	Wheel on the School	Meindert DeJong	5.6	4.4	Need of working together	Realism
1956	Carry on, Mr. Bowditch	Jean Lee Latham	5.6	4.6	Acquiring personal fulfillment	Biography
1957	Miracles on Maple Hill	Virginia Sorensen	5.3	3.8	Coping with change	Realism
1958	Rifles for Watie	Harold Keith	6.9	7.9	Conflicts of maturing during the Civil War	History
1959	Witch of Blackbind Pond	Elizabeth G. Speare	6.3	6.7	Coping with change	History
1960	Onion John	John Krumgold	5.6	5.4	Conflict of understanding others	Realism
1961	Island of the Blue Dolphins	Scott O'Dell	5.4	6.2	Understanding different cultures	Biography
1962	The Bronze Bow	Elizabeth G. Speare	6.1	5.9	Making and accepting one's own decision	History
1963	A Wrinkle in Time	Madeline L'Engle	5.5	5.2	Understanding others	Adventure (science fiction)

Year	Title	Author	Readability Level		Major Concept	Classification
			Lorge	*Fry*		
1964	It's Like This, Cat	Emily Neville	6.2	8.1	Accepting oneself and others	Realism
1965	Shadow of a Bull	Maria Wojiechowska	6.0	6.4	Overcoming fear	Biography
1966	I, Juan de Pareja	Elizabeth Borton de Trevino	7.2	8.6	Trust and understanding oneself	Biography
1967	Up a Road Slowly	Irene Hunt	7.1	8.8	Growing to maturity	Biography
1968	From the Mixed-Up Files of Mrs. Basil E. Frankweiler	E.L. Koningsburg	5.9	6.8	Awareness of oneself and others	Realism
1969	The High King	Lloyd Alexander	6.4	6.4	Battle between good and evil	Adventure (fantasy)
1970	Sounder	William H. Armstrong	6.1	7.2	Resolving personal confict	Realism
1971	Summer of the Swans	Betsy Byers	5.6	5.4	Understanding others	Realism
1972	Mrs. Frisby and the Rats of Nimo	E.L. Konigsburg	6.1	7.0	Working together	Adventure (fantasy, science fiction)
1973	Julie of the Wolves	Jean George	6.5	6.5	Accepting oneself and others	Realism

THE PACIFIC NORTHWEST YOUNG READERS' CHOICE AWARD

Year	Title	Author
1940	Paul Bunyan Swings His Axe	Dell McCormick
1941	Mr. Popper's Penguins	Florence and Richard Atwater
1942	By the Shores of Silver Lake	Laura Ingalls Wilder
1943	Lassie Come Home	Eric Knight
1944	Black Stallion	Walter Farley
1945	Snow Treasure	Marie McSwigan
1946	The Return of Silver Chief	John S. O'Brien
1947	Homer Price	Robert McCloskey
1948	Black Stallion Returns	Walter Farley
1949	Cowboy Boots	Shannon Garst
1950	McElligott's Pool	Dr. Seuss
1951	King of the Wind	Marguerite Henry
1952	Sea Star	Marguerite Henry
1953	No award	
1954	No award	
1955	No award	
1956	Miss Pickerell Goes to Mars	Ellen MacGregory
1957	Henry and Ribsy	Beverly Cleary
1958	Golden Mare	William Corbin
1959	Old Yeller	Fred Gipson
1960	Henry and the Paper Route	Beverly Cleary
1961	Danny Dunn and the Homework Machine	Jay Williams and Raymond Abrashkin
1962	Swamp Fox of the Revolution	Stewart Holbrook
1963	Danny Dunn on the Ocean Floor	Jay Williams and Raymond Abrashkin
1964	The Incredible Journey	Sheila Burnford
1965	John F. Kennedy and PT 109	Richard Tregaskis
1966	Rascal	Sterling North
1967	Chitty-Chitty-Bang-Bang	Ian Fleming
1968	The Mouse and the Motorcycle	Beverly Cleary
1969	Henry Reed's Baby-sitting Service	Keith Robertson
1970	Smoke	William Corbin
1971	Ramona the Pest	Beverly Cleary
1972	Encyclopedia Brown Keeps the Peace	Donald J. Sobol
1973	No award	

E. RECOMMENDED BOOKS

1. Primary.

Bishop, Claire, H. *The Five Chinese Brothers.* Illustrated by Kurt Wiese. New York: Coward, McCann and Geoghegan, Inc., 1938. A tale of five brothers whose unusual talents help them save one of their brothers from a sentence of death.

Brown, Marcia. *Felice.* Illustrated by the author. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1958. Felice, the adopted cat of Gino, the gondolier's son, sees the charm and splendor of Venice during travels up and down the canals of Venice.

Bulla, Clyde Robert. *White Bird.* Illustrated by Leonard Weisgard. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1966. This story centers around John Thomas and his white crow, which is stolen. While searching for it, John Thomas discovers the outside world, which widens his perspectives.

Burton, Virginia Lee. *Mike Mulligan and His Steam Shovel.* Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1938. This story centers around the steam shovel finding work when other machines that are more modern have replaced it.

Cleary, Beverly. *Henry and the Paper Route.* Illustrated by Louis Darling. New York: William Morrow & Co., Inc., 1957. Henry shows that he is responsible by helping out another paperboy by taking over for him when he is sick. Finally, Henry gets his own paper route.

Clifton, Lucille. *Some of the Days of Everett Anderson.* Illustrated by Evaline Ness. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1970. The daily encounters of Everett Anderson, a little boy who misses his dad and wonders about many things that happen around him.

DeAngeli, Marguerite. *Yonie Wondernose.* Illustrated by the author. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1944. The curiosity of Yonie Wondernose saves his Pennsylvania Dutch farm in Lancaster, Pennsylvania.

Gag, Wanda. *Millions of Cats.* Illustrated by the author. New York: Coward, McCann and Geoghegan, Inc., 1938. A little old lady and a little old man set out to find a beautiful cat and end up with millions of cats who devour each other until there is one bedraggled kitten left.

Grifalconi, Ann. *City Rhythms.* Illustrated by the author. Indianapolis, Ind.: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1965. Jimmy Peters looks around the city to find the rhythms his father speaks of and their meaning.

Hoban, Russell. *Bread and Jam for Frances.* Illustrated by Lillian Hoban. New York: Harper & Row, 1964. Frances, a Badger who has the characteristics of a child, decides that if she eats just bread and jam she will always know what to expect, but she soon tires of these two foods.

Keats, Ezra Jack. *A Letter to Amy.* Illustrated by the author. New York: Harper & Row, 1968. After planning an all-boy birthday party, Peter wants to invite his friend Amy.

Keats, Ezra Jack. *Goggles!* Illustrated by the author. New York: Macmillan Co., 1969. Archie and Peter, black inner city children, with the help of Willie, their dog, portray the perils of inner city life and the boys' close relationship.

Keats, Ezra Jack. *Peter's Chair.* Illustrated by the author. New York: Harper and Row, Inc., 1967. With the arrival of a new baby in the family, Peter finds that all of his baby furniture is being painted pink, and he doesn't like the idea until he finds out that he has outgrown his baby furniture.

Lionni, Leo. *Swimmy.* Illustrated by the author. New York: Pantheon Books, Inc., 1963. Swimmy, a fish different in color from the rest of the school of fish, shows the others how to protect themselves by swimming in the form of a large fish.

Mason, Miriam E. *The Middle Sister.* Illustrated by Grace Paull. New York: Macmillan Co., 1947. This story surrounds Sarah Samantha and Miss Appleseed, an apple tree, and the adventures they encounter with the animals and Indians in their new homestead and the bravery that Sara is looking for and acquires.

McCloskey, Robert. *Blueberries for Sal.* Illustrated by the author. New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1948. Sal and her mother go blueberry picking, and Sal and a bear cub get mixed up and follow the wrong mother, but they soon get back to their respective mothers.

Peet, Bill. *The Wump World.* Illustrated by the author. Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1970. This comment on pollution centers around creatures called Wumps. They are invaded by polluters and have to go underground until the polluters leave, and then they begin to rebuild the world they had before.

Politi, Leo. *Juanita.* Illustrated by the author. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1948. After receiving a rose-colored dress from her mother and a dove from her father, Juanita carries the dove in the Blessing of the Animals procession which takes place in the streets of Los Angeles.

Rich, Elaine Sommers. *Hannah Elizabeth.* Illustrated by Paul Edward Kennedy. New York: Harper & Row, Inc., 1964. As an Indian Mennonite, Hannah Elizabeth learns to face and recognize the conflicts between her family's beliefs and those of the outside world.

Simon, Norma. *Benjy's Bird.* Chicago: Albert Whitman & Co., 1965. Benjy finds a bird that has fallen from its nest, and by taking care of it Benjy learns to appreciate the joy of life and nature.

Turkle, Brinton. *Thy Friend, Obadiah.* Illustrated by the author. New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1969. Obadiah, a young boy living in old Nantucket, finds friendship with a sea gull.

Yashima, Taro. *Crow Boy.* Illustrated by the author. New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1955. A country boy is helped by his teacher to find acceptance among the other pupils and to take pride in himself.

Zolotow, Charlotte. *Mr. Rabbit and the Lovely Presents.* Illustrations by Maurice Sendak. New York: Harper & Row, Inc., 1962. In hunting for a present for her mother's birthday, a little girl runs into a rabbit that convinces her that her mother will appreciate just a basket of fruit from her daughter.

Zolotow, Charlotte. *The White Marble.* Illustrated by Lillian Obligado. New York: Abelard-Schuman Limited, 1963. A boy and girl who meet with their mothers on a hot evening in the park develop a friendship.

Zolotow, Charlotte. *William's Doll.* Illustrated by William Pene du Bois. New York: Harper & Row, Inc., 1972. William's desire for a doll upsets his family, especially his father, but an understanding grandmother comes to the rescue and gets him a doll.

2. **Intermediate.**

Arora, Shirley L. *What Then, Raman?* Chicago: Follett Publishing Co., 1960. The story of a young Indian boy's desire to learn and his responsibility in supporting his family.

Byars, Betsy. *Trouble River.* Illustrated by Rocco Negri. New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1969. A story of the courage of a young boy in evading the Indians and other enemies with the help of his grandmother.

Buck, Pearl. *The Big Wave.* New York: John Day Co., 1948. The sons of a mountain farmer and a fisherman are close friends, and when the fishing village is destroyed by a tidal wave the fisherman's son comes to live with the mountain farmer.

Calhoun, Mary. *Honestly, Katie John.* Illustrated by Paul Frame. New York: Harper & Row, Inc., 1963. Katie John grows in maturity and understanding after many conflicts with other sixth graders concerning boys.

Carruth, Ella Kaiser. *She Wanted to Read: The Story of Mary Macleod Bethune.* Illustrated by Herbert McClure. Nashville, Tenn.: Abingdon Press, 1966. Mary was the first in her family to learn to read and write and from then on she dedicated her life to teaching other black children to read.

Cleary, Beverly. *Ramona the Pest.* Illustrated by Louis Darling. New York: William Morrow & Co., Inc., 1968. Ramona, the younger sister of Beezus, keeps the reader attentive and entertained with her many escapades in kindergarten.

Clymer, Eleanor. *My Brother Stevie.* Illustrated by Estal Nesbitt. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1967. Stevie and his sister are left with their grandmother after their dad dies, and Stevie gets into all kinds of trouble. This changes when Stevie gets a new teacher at school.

Estes, Eleanor. *The Moffats.* Illustrated by Louis Slobodkin. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1968. The episodes of a family in Cranbury, Conn.

Fitzhugh, Louise. *Harriet the Spy.* Illustrated by the author. New York: Harper & Row, Inc., 1964. The adventures of a young writer as she observes her neighbors in New York City.

Flory, Jane. *One Hundred and Eight Bells.* Illustrated by the author. Boston, Mass: Houghton Mifflin, Co., 1963. Setsuko, aspiring to be an artist like her father, has difficulty sticking with her goal until she begins to mature.

Fox, Paula. *The Stone-Faced Boy.* Illustrated by Donald A. MacKay. Scarsdale, N.Y.: Bradbury Press, Inc., 1968. Gus adopts a "stone-face" after being ridiculed at school and home but soon learns to mature and gains the respect of his family.

Konigsburg, E.L. *George.* New York: Atheneum Publishers, 1970. The conflict of Ben and his inner self (George) in learning to cope with school situations and those around him.

Konigsburg, E.L. *Jennifer, Hecate, Macbeth, William McKinley and Me, Elizabeth.* Illustrations by the author. New York: Atheneum Publishers, 1967. The friendship of Jennifer and Elizabeth grows and matures through their pretense of being witches until they accept each other for what they really are.

O'Dell, Scott. *The Black Pearl.* Illustrated by Milton Johnson. Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1967. A pearl fisherman's son finds an enormous black pearl, which he gives to the church for the protection of his family.

Shatwell, Louisa R. *Roosevelt Grady.* Illustrated by Peter Burchard. New York: World Publishing Co., 1963. The life of a migrant family and how they earn their living.

Snyder, Zilpha Keatley. *The Velvet Room.* Illustrated by Alton Raible. New York: Atheneum Publishers, 1965. Because of the Depression, Robin's family sells their dairy farm and become migrant workers, but Mr. Williams soon finds a permanent job.

Steele, William O. *The Perilous Road.* Illustrated by Paul Galdone. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc., 1958. Chris Brabson becomes involved with the Civil War when his brother joins the Union Army, which Chris considers inhumane.

White, E.B. *Charlotte's Web.* Illustrations by Garth Williams. New York: Harper & Row, 1952. The friendship between a spider (Charlotte) and a pig (Wilbur) grows. Charlotte saves Wilbur from being killed by writing messages in her web.

Wier, Ester. *The Wind Chasers.* Illustrated by Kurt Werth. New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1967. Benjy, one of the sons of Jebidiah Klink, becomes so overwhelmed with the harshness of his living conditions that he reverts into a dream world of chasing wild horses in the canyons of Arizona.

Wilder, Laura Ingalls. *The Little House.* Illustrated by Garth Williams. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1953. The hardships of a pioneer family living in the 19th century.

3. **Upper Elementary**

Ball, Zachary. *Bristle Face.* New York: Holiday House, Inc., 1962. Jase and Bristle Face, a dog, roam together until one day they are persuaded to stay at a country store, where Jase establishes himself.

Barnwell, Robinson. *Head Into the Wind.* Illustrated by Avery Johnson. New York: David McKay Co., Inc., 1966. Toby's growing understanding of the people around him and his mother's intention to remarry helps him mature during his confusing years.

Bradbury, Bianca. *The Undergrounders.* Illustrated by Jon Nielsen. New York: Ives Washburn, Inc., 1966. The story of a young boy and his family's involvement in the underground railroad.

Burnford, Sheila. *The Incredible Journey.* Illustrated by Carl Burger. Boston, Mass.: Little Brown, & Co., 1961. Three animals make a long journey across 400 miles of Canadian wilderness to return to their home.

Cavanna, Betty. *Jenny Kimura.* New York: William Morrow & Co., Inc., 1964. Confused by the American culture while visiting her grandmother, Jenny faces dating and other social customs.

DeJong, Meindert. *The House of Sixty Fathers.* Illustrated by Maurice Sendak. New York: Harper & Row, Inc., 1968. Tien Pao is swept down the river on the family sampan and then goes in search of his family, who think he has been lost.

Doss, Helen. *The Family Nobody Wanted.* Boston, Mass.: Little, Brown & Co., 1954. A minister's wife becomes a mother to 12 children through adoption even though the children come from different backgrounds and cultures.

Emery, Anne. *Mountain Laurel.* New York: Scholastic Book Services, 1948. Laurel finds her place in life by achievement in mountain crafts and caring for her five brothers and sisters.

George, Jean Craighead. *Gull Number Seven Thirty-Seven.* New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1964. Luke Rivers finally becomes interested in his father's work with birds when he begins his own research on sea gulls.

Henry, Marguerite. *Mustang: Wild Spirit of the West.* Skokie, Ill.: Rand McNally & Co., 1966. The determination of Annie Johnson saves the wild mustang from extinction.

Hinton, S.E. *The Outsiders.* New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1967. The orphaned Curtis brothers are allowed to stay together as long as they stay out of trouble with the westside gang of rich kids.

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Boys' Life. Published monthly by the Boy Scouts of America, New Brunswick, N.J. 08903

Calling All Girls. Published monthly except summer by Parents' Institute, Inc., 52 Vanderbilt Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10017

Child Life. Published monthly. Curtis Publishing Co., 1100 Waterway Blvd., Indianapolis, Indiana

Children's Digest. Published monthly except July and August by Parents' Magazine Press, Inc., 52 Vanderbilt Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10017

Cricket. Published monthly except June, July and August by the Open Court Company, 1058 Eighth Street, LaSalle, Ill. 61301

Highlights for Children. Published monthly, except bimonthly June-July and August-September and semimonthly in December, by Highlights for Children, Inc., 2300 W. Fifth Avenue, Columbus, Ohio 43216

Humpty Dumpty's Magazine. Published monthly except July and August by Parents' Magazine Press, Inc., 52 Vanderbilt Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10017

Jack and Jill. Published monthly by Curtis Publishing Co., Independence Square, Philadelphia, Penn. 19105

Junior Natural History. Published 10 times a year by the American Museum of Natural History, Central Park West at 79th Street, New York, N.Y. 10024

Junior Scholastic. Published weekly except during summer by Scholastic Magazines, 33 West 42 Street, New York, N.Y. 10036. Summer subscriptions published five times during June, July and August

Kids. Published monthly except July and August by Kids' Publishers, Inc., 77 Third Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10017

My Weekly Reader. Published weekly except June to September by American Education Publications, Education Center, Columbus, Ohio 43216

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section VI
organization for reading

Efficient classroom organization becomes necessary in order to most effectively provide for individual differences within the classroom. There is no *one* best organizational arrangement or The term reading readiness instruction, as it applies to the teaching of skills prior to formal reading instruction, has been replaced in this guide by the term early reading instruction.

18 Administrative Organization

The varying philosophies of the different school systems will determine how children will be grouped in their respective classrooms and that, in turn, will affect how they can be organized within the classroom. Many schoolwide administrators encourage their principals to work with their respective school staffs in formulating building policies suited to their unique situations in the formation of organizational plans.

A. **CHRONOLOGICAL AGE.** The most commonly used method of grouping elementary children is that of assigning them to classrooms on the basis of their chronological age. This type of organizational pattern is fairly efficient from an administrative point of view since children of the same age often have similar needs, abilities and interests. At the same time, there is still a wide range of achievement within any class, and this range becomes wider as the children advance upward through school.

B. **ACHIEVEMENT GROUPING.** In an effort to create more homogeneous groups within each classroom, children are sometimes assigned to groups on the basis of their achievement. Since grouping in this manner is usually dependent on test scores, the limitations of such instruments must be kept in mind, and one must realize that while the range of any one particular difference may be narrowed, there will still be a wide range on any other variable.

C. **DEPARTMENTALIZATION.** This type of organizational arrangement has gained favor especially in the intermediate grades and has some advantages. Children can be taught the various subjects by teachers especially qualified in a particular field of learning. Materials and equipment for the various subjects can be assembled in the special teacher's room, and children have the opportunity of moving about from room to room in order to study their next subject. With this type of plan, however, teachers see a large number of children, and integration between subjects becomes more difficult.

One variation of departmentalization is regrouping students for reading instruction only. All teachers involved teach reading, but children are regrouped according to their reading levels to narrow the range within which each teacher teaches.

D. **UNGRADED OR NONGRADED ORGANIZATION.** This organizational plan has been implemented mostly at the primary level. It is designed to provide for all individual differences in the instructional setting with no reference to a specific grade level. Children assigned to kindergarten, first, second and third grade in a graded system are randomly assigned to primary classrooms in this system and remain in the primary unit until defined instructional goals have been reached. In some schools the teachers are assigned to a group of children and remain with them until they have completed the primary unit. Any of the various ways of assigning students to graded classrooms can be utilized in assigning children to groups in an ungraded plan.

19 Classroom Organization

A well-planned reading program makes use of flexible and varying systems of organization for reading instruction utilizing group reading activities, individualized reading activities and whole-class reading activities. The effective and creative use of organizational plans within a classroom can help the teacher to provide for individualization of instruction more efficiently. There is no *one* best method of grouping pupils for reading instruction. A teacher may group students in different ways, for many different purposes and for differing lengths of time. Any one pupil may belong to a number of different groups in a single school day.

We can expect to find a wide range of differences in any classroom of unselected students. These differences will be found in mental, physical, social and emotional development and should be expected as normal differences. Children will vary widely in their level of reading achievement, in the rate at which they learn to read, in the particular deficiencies they have in reading and in the ease and speed with which they can acquire any one of the specific reading skills. Good teaching makes for even greater variability in reading achievement. Instead of working toward having all pupils reach a predetermined level of reading ability at any specified time, the teacher should concentrate on helping each student achieve the success that is commensurate with his unique potential and should plan for a wider and wider span of reading abilities as the children advance upward through school.

Reading skills are developed gradually over a period of years in a basically systematic sequence, and a continuing program of skills development is necessary. The direct teaching of reading must take place at *every* level of achievement. At every level teachers must provide the opportunity for each child to become as proficient as possible. The time provided for the teaching of reading should be utilized in the most efficient way; therefore, some form of grouping is recommended.

The teaching method utilized by the teacher must be considered in an organizational plan. Some teachers will rely on a basal reader program; some will use a language experience approach; some will use an individualized approach, and others will elect components of some or all of these. The method of teaching the basic reading skills is a determining factor as to the type of classroom organization which will be most appropriate for a particular teacher with a given class for a specific purpose.

Other factors which influence grouping plans are the size of the class, the amount of space available for activities, the accessibility of supplementary materials and whether a paraprofessional is present to assist the classroom teacher.

Grouping for reading instruction requires considerable thought and effort on the part of the teacher, but intensive planning pays off.

A. **SOME PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF GROUPING.** It is important that teachers handle grouping in a natural manner and use no subterfuges to hide facts. If the children in a particular reading group decide they would like to have a group name, let them agree among themselves that they will be the Superstars, the Little Rascals, the Draculas or whatever name they choose. In most cases, teachers who indicate their acceptance of poor readers will, in turn, help these readers to accept themselves. Successful grouping depends to a great extent on the attitudes of the teacher. As a result of grouping, one can point to a number of positive psychological values such as:

- Children are helped to build a foundation for independent work habits.
- Competition and feelings of failure can be reduced, since children are not arranged against each other on the same reading tasks.
- Tension and negative attitudes toward reading are minimized.
- Each child is permitted to progress at his own rate and intergroup rivalry can be minimized.

B. **ACHIEVEMENT GROUPING.** Children who are reading at a similar level of difficulty can be grouped for basic reading instruction on a relatively long-term basis. This can be a useful plan particularly if a basal reader approach is used to teach reading. The number of groups formed will naturally be determined by the needs of the children. Occasionally two groups will suffice, but more often three and possibly four groups will be needed. More than four groups are not likely to be practical for the direct teaching of basic skills because of limited time allowances. When properly used, this type of plan can be most useful in differentiating instruction according to individual needs. Grouping by achievement is one means whereby materials can be assigned which are simple enough to give children a feeling of accomplishment but not so difficult as to be frustrating. Children within each of these groups will have individual and unique needs with regard to their skills development. Therefore, instruction within each of the groups will need to be differentiated.

C. **INTEREST GROUPING.** Most groups formed on the basis of shared interest will be short-term and frequently restructured. This type of grouping is highly motivational and most useful. Children from all achievement levels can be brought together as a group for the purpose of exploring a topic of particular interest to them at the time. These topics can be derived from a story any one of the members of the group has read or from common interest in a theme from the fields of science, music or art. Similar or related hobbies might draw together groups of youngsters whose reading achievement could range from first to sixth grade. Teachers should keep interest group plans flexible and form new groups often enough to stimulate reading on a variety of topics.

D. **SPECIFIC SKILLS/NEEDS GROUPS.** Children reading at various levels may be brought together advantageously on occasion when it is found that they have similar reading skills deficiencies. It is not unusual for children from any of the various reading levels within the classroom to be combined for instruction directed toward their own special needs. For example, efficient use of a glossary to find meanings of unfamiliar words might be a basis for a special group. Other examples might include help in decoding words, increasing speed or recognizing synonyms. Membership in a group of this kind could fluctuate rapidly as some members of the group may need to belong for a very short period of time, while others may need many lessons in order to overcome their deficiencies. Needs groups are usually short-lived and occasionally may even involve the whole class.

No one type of grouping will effectively adjust the reading program to accommodate the wide range of inter-individual and intra-individual differences in children and their learning styles. In order to be most effective, groups must have specific objectives; they must be discontinued after they have achieved their purpose; their size should be kept as small as practicable, and their membership must be kept flexible. These groups should be formed whenever a need for them has been identified and should be disbanded when the need no longer exists.

E. **BASAL READING GROUPS.** Modern basal reading series are generally developed on four main principles:

(1) They provide for continuity of growth in reading skills and abilities by means of carefully structured sequenced materials which help children progress from the reading material with a small controlled vocabulary to the handling of material with more and longer words and new and unfamiliar meanings.

(2) They provide for a variety of recreational and work-type reading activities which are designed to increase the child's ability to read and follow directions, skim for specific ideas and facts, to answer questions from reading, to obtain pleasure from reading and to give pleasure to others by reading aloud.

(3) They provide a well-rounded organization of reading experiences by showing the interrelationships of the different ways of reading so that reading becomes a group of related, organized abilities and not merely a series of separate skills.

(4) They provide for a worthwhile content of ideas which are character building for children in the modern world because their content is chosen for their intrinsic value.

The use of the basal reader approach to the teaching of reading is probably used more often than any other. However, the teacher who uses this approach must still diagnose needs and prescribe appropriate activities for each child. Basal reading groups must be planned for, and subgroups must be formed within these larger groups.

F. **A PLAN FOR MEETING WITH GROUPS.** Only by working efficiently within groups can most teachers begin to differentiate instruction. No single grouping plan can meet the needs of all teachers and children in all circumstances. Teachers must adapt and refine these procedures as needed.

At the beginning of a school year, a teacher should try to learn as much about the children as is available through discussions with their former teachers, cumulative record files, anecdotal records or workbooks and other samples of the child's previous work in reading. Be careful that you do not let information gained in this manner prejudice your investigation, but use it to support information which you will gather in the future.

Begin with whole-class reading activities, library books or reading kits and cards. Conduct individual conferences during this time and administer informal reading inventories and other informal means of assessing a child's reading skills and abilities.

As soon as practical, form two reading groups for: (1) children who can handle the grade-level text and (2) children who cannot. Use basals from the same series or from different series. Divide your time evenly between these two groups and assign worthwhile reading activities to be done by the children with whom you are not working directly.

Additional grouping and individualization of instruction should be continuing as you develop the ability to work with more groups and as you discover more about the children and their individual needs. Most teachers find that time allowances prohibit working effectively with more than three or four groups. Keep the number of groups flexible and allow children to move from one group to another as needed. The most important consideration is to focus your attention on differentiating instruction according to the needs of the students within each group. Grouping and individual instruction should be combined in an effective reading program. The following charts are merely examples of grouping plans which can be utilized in the classroom.

	Group A	Group B
8:30 – 8:50	Teacher directed	Independent work
8:50 – 9:10	Independent work	Teacher directed
9:10 – 9:30	Teacher directed	Independent work

Example of a time plan for meeting with two groups.

	Group A	Group B
8:30 – 9:00	Teacher directed	Independent work
9:00 – 9:30	Independent work	Teacher directed

Example of a time plan for meeting with two groups.

8:30 – 8:35	**Preparation**	
8:35 – 9:00	Teacher directed	Independent work
9:00 – 9:25	Independent work	Teacher directed
9:25 – 9:30	**Evaluation**	

Example of a time plan for meeting with two groups.

8:30 – 8:35	**Preparation**		
8:35 – 8:55	Teacher directed	Independent work	Library reading
8:55 – 9:10	Library reading	Teacher directed	Independent work
9:10 – 9:25	Independent work	Library reading	Teacher directed
9:25 – 9:30	**Evaluation**		

Example of a time plan for meeting with three groups.

	Group A	Group B	Group C
8:30 – 8:50	Teacher directed	Independent work	Library reading
8:50 – 9:10	Library reading	Teacher directed	Independent work
9:10 – 9:30	Independent work	Library reading	Teacher directed

Example of a time plan for meeting with three groups.

G. **TEAM TEACHING.** Team teaching has evolved in an effort to ease the work load of teachers by allowing greater teacher specialization and to try to make more time available for the individualization of instruction. It can be as simple as two teachers sharing the teaching responsibilities involved with their two classrooms of children (usually called cooperative teaching) or a more complicated organization which includes a master teacher, several regular teachers, paraprofessional assistants and clerical help.

Cooperative planning is an essential ingredient if this type of organizational arrangement is to be successful. It, too, can be as simple or as complicated as the participating members feel is necessary. If only two teachers are involved, the planning might be accomplished before school over a cup of coffee, walking down the hall together, during recess or lunch periods or in the classroom after a day of teaching together. With a large number of team members, a more structured approach toward planning sessions becomes a necessity. Regardless of the number of team members involved, planning together, common goals and mutually agreed upon procedures are required.

One advantage of team teaching for reading instruction is that greater homogeneity of groups becomes possible. A second advantage is that there can be greater flexibility among reading groups. A third advantage is that the special strengths of the individual team members can be utilized more efficiently in meeting particular needs of students and in using their specific abilities more effectively. All teachers on the team are available to continuously observe, discuss, diagnose, prescribe and evaluate pupil progress. Team members must be careful that this organizational plan does not evolve into departmentalization and ignore team planning. All cooperating members should have input into the plans in order that the strengths of each are utilized to their fullest potential. Group dynamics are important, and the composition of the team group should be carefully considered. No one should enter into this type of venture unwillingly. Compatibility among team members is essential.

H. **OPEN CLASSROOMS.** Open classrooms can be organized within the confines of a traditional classroom space or within the total structure of an entire school. The principles behind the open classroom are much like those behind good education in any other organizational pattern. The philosophy of open education can be summarized as follows:

- Learning begins when the child is born.
- Learning is a continuous process.
- Learning is personal.
- Learning is self-motivated.
- Learning requires a purpose.
- Learning requires that materials be appropriate to the person's level of development.
- The individual can direct his own learning.
- The learner must be actively involved with his learning.

In an open classroom most instruction takes place in small groups or with individuals. The scheduling of activities is flexible. Children are free to move about and work alone or in groups. A wide variety of materials are assembled, and children are free to experiment and investigate in any area which interests them.

Team teaching, interage grouping and individual contracts are often utilized in open classrooms. The teaching of reading includes materials much like those found in more traditional settings. Basal readers, experience charts, library books, paperback books, reading kits and workbooks are available for use.

The scheduling of reading periods is flexible and closely integrated with the other language arts. The self-selection of reading materials is employed, there is less attention to graded standards of achievement, there is great emphasis on content of reading matter, and reading for enjoyment is emphasized.

I. **INDIVIDUALIZED READING.** The principles of individualized reading are: (1) *seeking* (the child seeks books to read), (2) *self-selection* (the child selects books to read which are interesting to him and which he can read readily), and (3) *pacing* (the child can read the book at his own rate).

There is no set format for this type of organization, but it generally includes the following activities:

- Pupil-teacher conferences are scheduled periodically.
- Children are given a block of time in which they are to choose a book and read in it.
- Special-needs groups are formed when it is determined they are necessary.
- Time is arranged for sharing reading with a group or the whole class.

It is recommended that a classroom not exceed 25 members because of the difficulty of scheduling conferences with too large a class. A great number of books on a wide range of reading levels and covering a broad field of interests is required. The teacher must have a thorough knowledge of reading skills and how to teach them. The teacher must also be constantly evaluating a child's progress in order to provide for continuing growth in skills and in extending his interests. Many teachers who use the individualized approach follow the skills development of a basal reading series so that there is a systematic progression of skills. Record keeping is an integral part of this plan and can become formidable unless well organized. Creativity, knowledge, organizational ability, skill and flexibility on the part of the teacher are necessary in order for this plan to be successful. It should not be attempted by the inexperienced teacher.

J. **CROSS-GRADE GROUPING.** Cross-grade grouping is most often employed in the intermediate grades. In this type program children from the middle grades are grouped for reading according to reading achievement and teacher observation. This organizational pattern is an attempt to narrow the range of reading abilities and to meet the needs of children in reading instruction. Although the reading range is narrowed, groups will still not be homogeneous in all aspects, and additional provisions must be made for the individual members of each group.

K. **PAIR GROUPS.** In this type of grouping students may be paired according to reading ability, but it is not necessary to do so. Pair groups may be formed for any purpose the teacher finds is desirable. Students may read orally to each other, discuss material that has previously been read independently, question each other or work cooperatively in answering questions. Specific objectives for the pairing should be mutually decided upon and understood by the teacher and the members of the paired groupings.

L. **CROSS-AGE TUTORING.** Older students can be trained to successfully tutor younger children in reading. Two approaches have been used successfully. Both of these need administrative approval and guidance, and tutors must be trained in their implementation.

In a nonstructured approach, prospective tutors participate in brainstorming sessions, role-playing and discussions which are aimed at helping them understand why children have trouble learning to read and some of the types of reading problems they are likely to encounter. They are encouraged to use their own resources in creating reading materials with which to teach. Their main function is to help students develop a better self-image and to create a positive relationship between themselves and the students.

In the structured approach, tutors are taught to follow programmed procedures which have been carefully planned. These tutorial programs have also used adult volunteers as well as older students.

A more general type of approach is to have older students go into the classrooms of younger students and work with a child on a one-to-one basis. Important considerations here might include:

- Matching of tutor and tutored
- Having materials and assignments prepared and available
- Scheduling tutorial sessions
- Record keeping
- Motivational techniques

In order to maximize mutual gains in reading ability and improvement in self-concept and attitudes, tutorial programs should be coordinated by qualified persons and conducted in an atmosphere of encouragement.

M. **VOLUNTEER TUTORS** In the volunteer tutoring program, the teacher provides the reading instruction, and the tutor supplements the teacher by providing the child with individualized attention and practice. The goals of a program of this type are:

- To provide more individualized attention for students who are under-achievers in reading.
- To try to reduce the child's self-image of failure.
- To increase the child's oral language facility.
- To build the child's interest in reading.
- To provide reinforcement for learning that occurs in the classroom.
- To help the child see that learning can be fun.

The classroom teacher is responsible for the child's instructional program, but the tutor is available to aid him by working with specific children.

N. **INDEPENDENT READING ACTIVITIES.** The classroom teacher has the responsibility of providing for independent activities which students can carry out while he is working with small groups of children either in a basal reading program or other small group activity. The problem of keeping two-thirds or more of the class profitably engaged in worthwhile reading activities can be solved only with a knowledge of the children involved. Children will see more value and relevance in activities which they have had a part in planning. Each teacher must establish a working atmosphere in which he and the children can function efficiently.

The following are some suggestions for activities which may be adapted by a teacher to meet the needs of the children in her classroom. Some are more appropriate at one grade level than another.

- Silent reading to answer questions placed on the chalkboard.
- Silent reading to complete dittoed exercises.
- Completing exercises from a reading workbook after students have had appropriate readiness developed in the reading group. Workbooks should be checked after completion.
- Having each member of a group prepare a designated scene from a story so that when completed the group's pictures tell the story.
- Reading library books or supplementary books.
- Writing an original story (or paragraph, depending upon the child's ability and desire). Story-starters may be needed in some classes.
- Selecting and preparing a short story or poem for audience reading.
- Reading to prepare for some future activity, such as applications in drawing maps, construction, dramatization, brief book reports and story telling.
- Unit projects, research activities and other activities of this type.
- Previously prepared learning station activities.
- Listening to taped stories.
- Commercially prepared or teacher-made word games.
- Developmental reading and study skill activities such as are found in SRA Reading Laboratories, EDL Laboratories, New Practice Readers or Webster Word Cards, McCall-Crabb Test Lessons in Reading or any from the Barnell Loft Series.

Suggestions for reading activities should be listed on the chalkboard, a chart or a dittoed sheet so that students can refer to them when looking for something to do. These activities should yield a definite result such as questions answered, a picture drawn, something written or a dramatization ready for sharing. Often this is the time when reading comes alive for the children and becomes a joyous and purposeful activity.

O. **LEARNING CENTERS.** Learning centers are an innovative way of individualizing the curriculum within the framework of any classroom organizational plan. Children work independently at learning activities which have been prescribed for them by the teacher or which they have selected for themselves. This technique of teaching allows the child to work at his own pace, utilize his own learning style, meet his particular needs and, at the same time, to have some positive relationship with his peer group.

For some children it is sometimes necessary to supplement a basal series with additional skill development activities. The teacher can identify skill needs of children, then prescribe activities for additional practice to be done in the centers. These types of centers can also be used conveniently to provide the resources and motivation for extensive reading for information and for enjoyment.

The key to a successful learning center is a well-defined lesson plan which should contain these four components:

(1) Self-direction for the child
(2) Provision for different ability levels
(3) Stated objectives for each specific skill
(4) Clearly defined means of evaluation

A brief list of the types of reading stations applicable in a classroom could include:

- Library corner for reading
- Centers for creative drama or puppet shows
- Listen and read centers
- Oral reading with partners or on tape
- Language experience (writing) centers
- Reading game centers
- Centers for skill development using worksheets, tapes, activity cards or folders.
- Project centers for research purposes

Some of the techniques which have been found successful in handling assignments to stations are:

- Listing assignments on the chalkboard
- Listing assignments on a chart
- Listing assignments on duplicating paper
- Discussing assignments orally
- Giving tickets for the various stations
- Using a job sheet or contract

Teachers have found many creative ways of establishing learning centers. Screens, bookcases, corrugated cardboard boxes, portable blackboards and filing cabinets are but a few of the possibilities.

The following is an example of a child's record:

My Work Today		**Books I Have Read**	
		Title	*Author*
I read _____ pages	__________	____________________	______________________
I did a worksheet	__________	____________________	______________________
I wrote a story; a poem	__________	____________________	______________________
I played a reading game	__________	____________________	______________________

I also ____

____

At the Center:

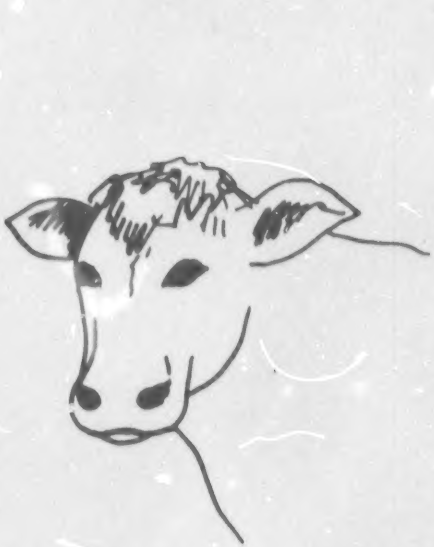
Name	Time in	Time out
_______________	__________	________

How did you like it?

Good	Fair	Poor
Keep it going	Don't care	Get rid of it

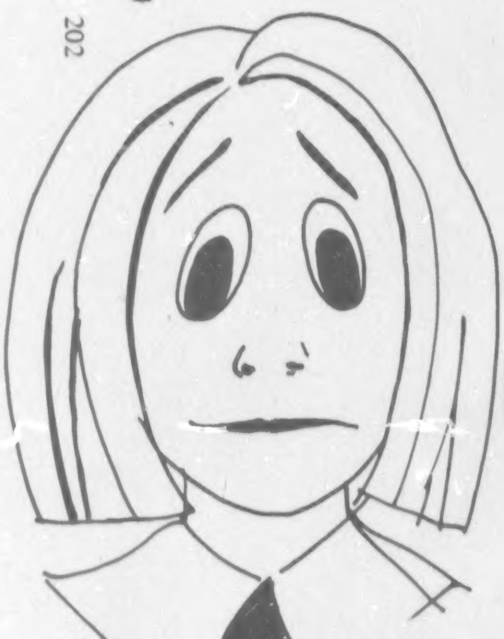
Example of a Mini Learning Center. This mini learning center is designed to be used individually or as a small group activity with the teacher. The original was laminated on a manila file folder. Word cards are used with the learning center and can be placed in an envelope which has been attached to the folder. The child looks at each word card and decides whether the word contains the *ow* sound as in *cow* or the *ow* sound as in *know.* The cards can be coded on the back so that the child can check his answers if the center is used individually. Words such as the following can be used on the cards: *slow, snow, tow, show, throw, blow, grow, flow, low* and *glow.* These represent the *ow* sound as in *know.* The *ow* sound as in *cow* is exemplified by such cards as *shower, now, towel, howl, flower, growl, crown, power* and *powder.* Cards with *row, sow* and *bow* are included in the center, showing that some words can have both sounds.

I know I am a cow!



cow

know



Me?

P. **INDIVIDUAL LEARNING PACKETS.** Materials in learning packets should be organized in such a way that the child can progress at his own rate. Evaluation pre-tests can be included to determine whether he needs to complete the remainder of the packet. If the pre-test indicates a need, he should continue through the packet in order to develop the specific skill for which the packet was created. Satisfactory completion of the evaluation post-test indicates that he is ready to continue on to the next skill. Student and teacher cooperate in evaluating practice work as well as pre-test and post-test results, and both should keep records of the student's growth and progress in particular skills.

Q. **LEARNING CONTRACTS.** Learning contracts are particularly beneficial when used by the more mature student. Children at higher levels of achievement often are highly motivated to complete the work which has been contracted. The following is an example of one type of reading contract combining basal text and individualization of instruction:

Contract No. 3 "The Sun That Warms" Level 11

Name ____________________

Date Started 3-5-74 Date Completed 3-9-74

Complete each before going on		Score
1. Vocabulary	check in class	
2. Self-help activities (pp. 17-18)	check in class	
3. Skills handbook (pp. 14-17)	check in class	
4. See the teacher (date)		
5. Read "The Day They Stayed Alone"		
6. Answer questions on p. 112	turn in	10
7. Do the 3 dittoed worksheets	place in folder	
8. See the teacher (date)		
9.		
10.		
11.		
12.		

Teacher's comments:

Student's comments:

Parents' comments:

This is a reading contract used to meet the individual and overall needs of the students. It is based on a story from the Ginn 360 Reading Program, Level 11, "The Sun That Warms."

It should be noted that the overall objectives are presented first in Nos. 1-7. The individual objectives are pursued after No. 8 (See the teacher). At this point the students take a "Unit Mastery Test" found on pages 85-88 in the Self-Help Activities worksheets. Whatever objectives in which the student is found to be insufficient (comprehension, word usage, suffixes, etc.) are met in Nos. 9-12. This is where differentiation of instruction takes place and individual needs are met. Supplementary materials outside of the Ginn program are normally used here in order to provide for skills deficiencies.

(1) *Vocabulary.* A list of new words is presented in the teacher's manual for each story. The students find these words in the glossary or dictionary and write them in original sentences. These sentences are shared during the directed teaching activity.

(2) *Self-Help Activities* (pp 17-18). Introduces the suffixes *able, ible, ant, ent* and *y.* Also a comprehension exercise.

(3) *Skills Handbook* (pp. 14-17). These are study skills showing how to use an encyclopedia.

(4) *See the teacher.* During the teacher-pupil conference, the contract is examined to determine student progress. All papers are filed in the student's folder, where they are accessible for diagnosis and evaluation.

(5) *Read the story* "The Day They Stayed Alone."

(6) *Answer questions* on p. 112 (Ten comprehension questions about the story).

(7) *Do the three dittoed worksheets* (Sequence of events and comprehension, pronouns, discriminating between consonants *g* and *j).*

(8) *See the teacher.* This second time, the teacher reviews the child's work and OKs it if it meets the objectives. If not, additional supplementary material will be furnished and/or the teacher will provide individual reteaching of the skill in which the deficiency is noted. Since the child is already placed in a basal at his instructional reading level, this extra procedure is usually short as few problems are encountered.

When a teacher is satisfied that the criteria have been met, he gives the student a mastery test as explained in the introduction. The supplementary materials may be of many different sorts – audio-visual materials, workbooks, textbooks, teacher-made handouts, creative construction, etc. Anything can be used which will encourage the student's interests and help to motivate him or improve his versatility in reading.

The teacher will write in the empty blanks what each child needs to work on. For example, John Jones needed help with decoding words when reading and understanding what he read.

Aids to Decoding Words.
Barnell Loft, *Working With Sounds,* Book C, Nos. 1-4.
Language Master – 25 cards on decoding (teacher-made)

Aids to Understanding.
MacMillan Spectrum of Skills, *Reading Comprehension,* Orange, Nos. 1-2
Barnell Loft, *Drawing Conclusions,* Book C, Nos. 1-4

At the completion of the contract the teacher checks off the child's remaining work and keeps the contract. He may or may not disclose what he has noted under "teacher's comments," but the contract is filed for reference when conducting parent conferences. A grade can be put on the contract for general reference, and the completed date is filled in.

R. SUGGESTED MATERIALS USEFUL FOR LEARNING CENTERS.

The Library Corner. Poetry, picture books, joke books, riddle books, game books, dictionaries of slang, how-to-do-it hobby books, story books, comic books, basal readers at various levels, plays for oral reading, periodicals such as Weekly Reader or Scholastic, class newspapers, magazines, books and stories written by children, experience charts, buddy reading books (sets of two), material for choral reading, cards for guided reading and for follow-up activities that provide a means of sharing books, card files of children's evaluation of books, bulletin boards for reporting on number of books read, etc., displays of new books.

The Listening Center. Headphones, tape recorder or player, table or carrel, teacher-made and commercial tapes, books or stories, and question sheets or sequence puzzles, language masters and cards.

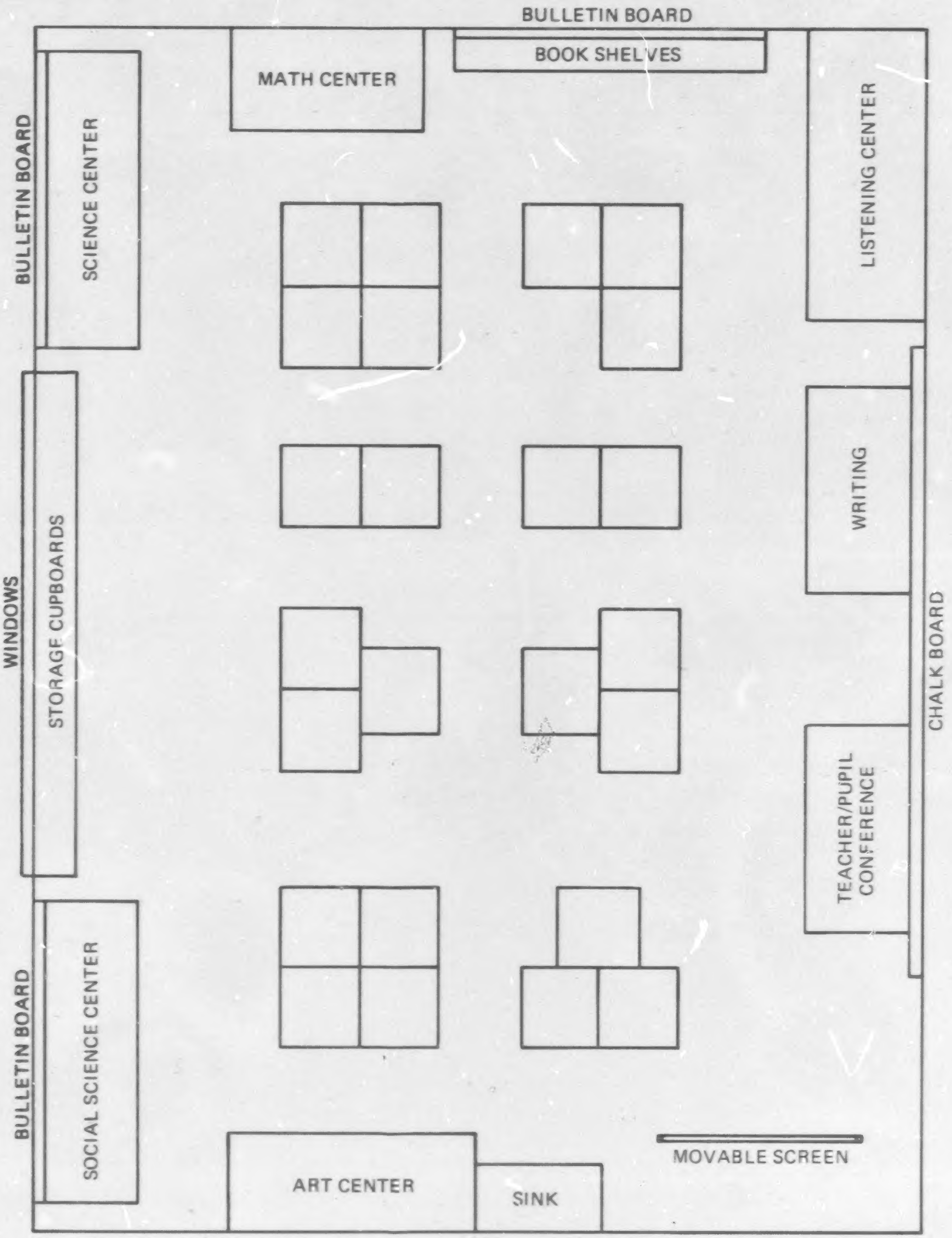
Language Experience Center. Individual story books, a touch and feel box, a smell center (bottles or jars containing interesting smells), a weekly newspaper or newscast, pictures from magazines, travel folders, picture postcards, filmstrips, slides, artwork to stimulate writing, interesting objects to write about (toys, shells, etc.), cartoons without titles, story starters, a tape or record of sounds to write about, recordings of suggestions on how the materials might be used.

Game Center. Commercial and teacher- and student-made games for developing word attack skills, spelling, vocabulary (word meanings), etc., should be selected to meet specific individual needs and assigned to small groups for practice in these needed skills.

Learning centers can be constructed in a number of ways using materials on hand:

- Set aside one or more desks for taping or listening activities.
- Use one or more desks or tables with a portable chalkboard or bulletin board between them.
- Use art easels as display racks.
- Construct a poster board stand.
- Use refrigerator packing boxes.
- Make carrels from corrugated paper.
- Make carrels from cardboard boxes.

The following is a diagram incorporating some of these possibilities in a classroom:


BULLETIN BOARD
BOOK SHELVES
MATH CENTER
BULLETIN BOARD
SCIENCE CENTER
LISTENING CENTER
WINDOWS
STORAGE CUPBOARDS
WRITING
CHALK BOARD
TEACHER/PUPIL CONFERENCE
BULLETIN BOARD
SOCIAL SCIENCE CENTER
MOVABLE SCREEN
ART CENTER
SINK

S. **SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPLEMENTATION.** Several rather general approaches can be used to teach reading, and each has its own relative strengths and weaknesses. These approaches might be described as the basal reader or controlled vocabulary approach, the language experience approach and the individualized approach. The classroom teacher will probably elect to use the one system which he best understands and which is most comfortable for him. This elected system should then be supplemented with appropriate selected elements from the other approaches in order to best meet the needs of the individual children.

Every teacher who uses grouping successfully realizes that the managing of groups should be approached cautiously and judiciously. The teacher must work cooperatively with them in planning, directing and evaluating their activities; yet, he must assume responsibility for their progress and achievement. Here are some suggestions that may help:

- Get the pupils involved in cooperative planning in order that they will understand clearly both purposes or goals and things that they are to do.
- Help with the organization of the situation so that each group assumes responsibility for a certain share of the work and each individual in the group assumes his share of the total group responsibility.
- Make certain that each group has sufficient work to last through the anticipated period of time it will be working independently. Be certain that the work is reading related and worthwhile.
- Check before the work is started to make certain that everyone understands what to do and that there is a specific sequence to follow.
- Introduce new work or new ideas connected with old work with special care to help students avoid possible difficulties.
- Between meeting with a reading group, move about, evaluate and direct students by lending them a hand, talking with them, answering their questions and giving them suggestions.
- Assure yourself that things are going well in the groups.
- Anticipate possible trouble and be ready to help replace the work as necessary to prevent stoppage and discouragement.
- Talk about group relationships, such as respecting the rights and opinions of others, taking turns, listening while someone else is talking, borrowing and returning books, not disturbing the teacher when he is giving direct reading instruction to another group and not disturbing another group who might be involved with an activity that requires a quieter atmosphere.
- Instruct children in how to arrange their time so that they do not spend too little or too much time doing certain things.
- Provide an ample supply of materials, such as books, paper, crayons, paint and scissors, for carrying on all aspects of the group project.
- Develop routine procedures for the members of groups to follow such as the following:

(1) Getting all the necessary materials, such as books, tools and supplies, ready in advance, and distributing them or having them distributed quickly and in an orderly fashion.
(2) Allowing students to help with the materials, especially individuals who need encouragement or can spare the time.
(3) Helping students to learn to assist one another by working quietly and by not crowding or jostling one another.
(4) Holding conferences with individuals and groups that apparently need direction or help.
(5) Establishing rules for the use of reference materials in case the materials are limited in quantity.
(6) Rotate having a child as intermediary between teacher and groups so as to minimize interrupting the teacher as he is conducting direct reading instruction.

Classroom organization is only one part of the total reading program, but it is a very important part. Some types of learning can be achieved best through group instruction. They are compatible approaches to the teaching of reading, and we should not ignore the values of each. We should learn to vary our approach from child to child and from day to day and from hour to hour. In order to accomplish this effectively, efficient organization for reading instruction is imperative.

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20 Program Monitoring and Record Maintenance

If the classroom teacher is to provide an effective reading program – one that is designed to meet the specific needs of individual students – he must have a system for managing the various program activities. This system must include techniques for monitoring the instructional process so that he has a clear indication of whether the objectives that are being pursued are being accomplished. The system must also include adequate student and class records so that information about a student's progress, or lack of it, is available for use by the teacher in planning subsequent program activities.

A. **PROGRAM MONITORING TECHNIQUES.** Monitoring is necessary to determine to what extent the program is working and to provide information concerning how the program should be adjusted if it is not working as well as expected or desired. In order to meet individual needs we not only have to know where a child is when he starts and where he is when he finishes, but what's happening continually throughout the school year. A system for gathering information and for putting that information into use in adjusting a child's program must be developed.

In developing an effective monitoring system, it is necessary to look at the types of decisions the teacher is required to make. The decision that the monitoring system is designed to facilitate must be related not only to the question of whether instruction is successful, but if it is not, why not? Therefore, efforts to collect useful information about instruction must include information relative to the success of our instructional efforts as well as information relative to the kinds of instructional efforts that are likely to be more effective.

The monitoring effort must include both formal and informal techniques. An important principle to keep in mind when considering a monitoring system is that whenever possible the monitoring efforts should be organized as a regular part of instructional activities. If program monitoring can be accomplished as an ongoing part of the instructional program, it then poses less of an additional burden on the teacher.

Designing monitoring as an integral part of the instructional activities suggests that in collecting information about whether instruction is succeeding, the teacher should look for evidence within the instructional process itself. Monitoring often includes samples of students' work, e.g., workbook pages, reports, activities, and these samples can be used as a basis for determining whether a student's performance is successful. This means simply that in addition to, or instead of, using students' work samples to assign grades, the teacher uses these work samples to determine whether objectives are being accomplished.

This procedure requires that the teacher do two things. First, it must be determined that the work sample is an example of the performance specified in the objective the teacher is attempting to accomplish. This determination is made by comparing the work completed with the objective. If the objective has been clearly stated, it should not be difficult to determine whether the student's work sample covers the behavior specified in the objective. Secondly, a criterion must be established for the level of performance that is necessary to conclude that the objective has been accomplished.

The establishment of an appropriate criterion may be somewhat more difficult, but if the teacher keeps in mind the following facts, the process will be greatly simplified.

Basis for establishing performance criteria:

- The level of performance that is required for the behavior to be a useful aspect of the total reading process.
- The extent or size of the sample of behavior being evaluated.
- The reasonable expectancy for a given individual considering his past performance.

In using these considerations to establish the performance criteria, it must be realized that the criteria are, in the final analysis, arbitrarily set and, therefore, should always be considered as tentative. Once the tentative criteria have been established, additional evidence may require that they be adjusted.

Although it is desirable to have information available as an integral aspect of instruction, it sometimes happens that no such information is produced. In these instances it becomes necessary for the teacher to employ some external or special technique designed to provide the needed information. This can be a teacher-made test over the objective or a commercially available assessment technique for the objective. Criterion referenced tests are commonly used to collect the desired information.

In developing monitoring techniques, it is important to point out that in addition to written tests, it is possible for the teacher to use his observations as well as conversations with students as a basis for monitoring instruction. If the observations are systematic, i.e., they focus on specific aspects of behavior, these observations can indicate whether or not the student can perform program objectives.

In collecting information relative to the various program objectives, the teacher must have available techniques and instruments appropriate for the various program objectives. A common approach to supplying these instruments and techniques is to develop an assessment file in which is placed an assessment strategy for each of the program objectives. These strategies may be group or individual and formal or informal. The important consideration is that they are appropriate techniques for determining whether or not students can perform program objectives. These instruments may then be used to determine whether instruction has been successful and whether instruction needs to be modified or extended. A number of commercially developed reading management systems are also available for use in monitoring instruction. Selected management systems are listed at the end of this chapter.

A monitoring system is simply a plan that enables the teacher to follow the child's progress systematically and continually through a clearly defined area of instruction.

B. **STUDENT RECORDS.** If the classroom teacher is to carry out a reading program that is responsive to the individual needs of his students, and if he is to manage the reading program on the basis of clearly stated objectives, individual diagnosis and effective instructional techniques, then his efforts must include a well developed system of student records. Records serve two major functions in the reading program: they provide the recorded information necessary for planning the program's instructional activities, and they provide the basic information upon which program evaluation is based.

Because diagnostic teaching is based upon the assessed needs of students, the objectives that have been identified to cover those needs and the teaching strategies that are then selected to accomplish those objectives, it is essential that the reading program include some system whereby information can be recorded in a systematic way – a system of records that can provide the information necessary for the accomplishment of the goals that have been established for the program. Essentially what is involved in this process is a technique of record keeping that indicates at any given time precisely where students are going as well as where they have been.

Another factor that must be kept in mind is that the records serve as a guide for the evaluation of the program. If records are kept accurately, and if they, in fact, indicate the kinds of accomplishments that are being made, the kinds of efforts that are being made to meet the needs of individual students and for small groups of students, then that information can be used to evaluate the overall effectiveness of the program.

1. **Individual Student Checklists.** The reading skills checklist includes a specific set of reading skills and space for the teacher to indicate whether the student has accomplished the particular skills that are listed (See Figure 1). With a record such as the checklist, it is possible, by examining the skills on the checklist that the student has accomplished and those that he has not, to determine the skills that must still be taught to that particular individual. The checklist also indicates those successes the teacher has had in terms of his previous teaching efforts. If a teacher is planning for future instructional activities, he can focus upon those elements that the student has not accomplished. If he is making an evaluation of the student's past efforts, considering reporting to parents or planning parent conferences, those items that are indicated on the checklist as having been successfully completed can be used to form a kind of profile of the student's abilities relative to reading.

2. **Individual Student Notebook.** Another kind of individual student record which can be suggested, and which teachers have found to be useful in keeping records of student progress, is a student notebook. This notebook, which includes a tab for each student's name and a number of pages for recording each student's reading activities, provides a running account or diary of a student's reading efforts. Included in the notebook are such things as the titles of books the student has read or is reading, a list of the specific activities the teacher has assigned him, any indication from the child of a particular area of interest and any number of things that would be useful to the teacher in looking at the child's reading behavior, both in terms of planning additional reading tasks and in terms of assessing the degree to which he has accomplished previously assigned tasks.

3. **Individual Student Work Folder.** Closely related to the student notebook is a procedure which teachers have found to be most valuable, and that is the keeping of a student work folder. This is nothing more than a file folder in which the teacher routinely and systematically collects and keeps samples of a student's work so that at some later date it is possible to examine the efforts the child has made and to make decisions about how successful those efforts have been. The work file is also a valuable source of information for preparing to report to parents. By having samples of the student's work to display when he reports to parents, the teacher is able to give parents a better idea of a child's program as well as his level of success.

One of the problems in using an individual student record, such as the checklist, is that it does not provide an efficient method of planning for the class as a whole. With the

Figure 1.

Checklist of Reading Skills

Student: ______________________________

Grade: ______________ Age: ______________

Teacher: ______________________________

	Assessment No. 1		Assessment No. 2		Assessment No. 3	
Auditory Discrimination						
General Sounds						
Rhyming Words						
Visual Discrimination						
Picture Discrimination						
Letter Discrimination						
Word Discrimination						
Phonetic Analysis						
Initial Consonants						
Median Consonants						
Final Consonants						
Consonant Blends						
Short Vowels						
Structural Analysis						
Plurals, words ending in *s* or *es*						
Compound Words						

individual record, in order to determine the group of students that need help on a particular skill, it is necessary to go through each of the individual student records.

4. **Class Ledger.** One solution to the problem of identifying groups of students needing help on a particular skill is the development of a class ledger. Figure 2 is a sample of such a ledger.

The class ledger is a form on which the program objectives (or at least the skills these objectives cover) are listed along the left hand margin and spaces are provided across the top of the page for listing the students' names. Thus, the teacher has a grid on which it is possible to indicate for each student which program objectives have been accomplished and which have not. The class ledger provides a class profile that can be used by the teacher to plan instructional activities. The profile indicates which students need instruction for which objectives. As a basic planning tool, the information from the ledger indicates to the teacher which students have similar needs and might, therefore, be grouped together for instruction.

Information on the class ledger should be recorded continually. This includes results from the initial assessment of program objectives as well as information collected by the teacher as he monitors the success of his instruction. Most systems use a plus and minus recording system, plus (+) indicating that the student can perform the objective and minus (–) indicating that he cannot perform the task. A blank indicates that the student has not yet been evaluated on that objective. In the plus and minus system, it is easy to change a minus to a plus when a student has accomplished a skill he could not previously perform.

4. **Key Sort Records.** A second type of group or class record is the key sort card (See Figure 3). This card has a series of holes around the edge that are matched to program objectives. Each student has a card, and as he demonstrates the accomplishment of an objective, the edge of the card beside the hole that matches the objective is notched out. Thus, when the cards from all students in the class are stacked and a sorting needle inserted in the hole for a particular objective, the cards for those children who have been notched will fall off the sorting needle (See Figure 4). Those students whose cards remain on the needle have not accomplished the objective and, therefore, need instruction.

While the class ledger provides a visible profile of the class, the key sort provides a quick way to determine possible instructional groups. Another advantage of the key sort card is that it also forms an individual record for the student that can be passed along with him to different teachers or different schools.

5. **Record Keeping.** An important consideration in the effective use of a records system is the question of when to record. It should be clear that for records to be useful, they must be kept up to date. On the other hand, it is impractical to expect the teacher to record all information at the exact moment it is collected or observed. The most satisfactory approach seems to be to schedule a regular period of time each week. Obviously, the recording must be made consistently. Considering the fact that much information can be gained from observations and interviews with students, the results of these observations and interviews must be recorded within a relatively short period of time if they are to be remembered accurately.

The teacher may find it helpful and time-saving to involve students themselves in the record keeping process. There are two advantages to having a student participate in the recording of his own progress. First, students appear to get a great deal of satisfaction out

Figure 2.

CLASS LEDGER OF READING SKILLS

SKILLS	Students																																		
WORD RECOGNITION																																			
Auditory Discrimination:																																			
General Sounds																																			
Rhyming Words																																			
Visual Discrimination:																																			
Pictures and Shapes																																			
Letter Forms and Shapes																																			
Words																																			
Phonetic Analysis:																																			
Initial Consonants																																			
Medial Consonants																																			
Final Consonants																																			
Consonant Blends																																			
Short Vowels																																			
Structural Analysis:																																			
Plurals, s or es																																			
Compound Words																																			
Sight Words:																																			
Pre-Primer to Primer																																			
First Grade																																			
Second Grade																																			
Third to Fourth Grade																																			
COMPREHENSION																																			
Literal:																																			
Locating Specific Information																																			
Noting Details																																			
Reading for Details																																			
Recalling Sequence																																			
Organizing to Show Sequence																																			
Main Idea																																			
Interpretation:																																			
Recognizing Emotional Attitudes																																			
Vocabulary:																																			
Synonyms																																			
Multiple Meanings																																			
Homonyms																																			
STUDY SKILLS																																			
Work Study:																																			
Left-to-Right Progression																																			
Eye-Hand Coordination																																			
Following Directions																																			
Alphabetizing:																																			
Letters																																			
Words																																			
Parts of Books:																																			
Table of Contents																																			
Directories:																																			
Telephone																																			
Graphic Materials																																			
Maps																																			
Globes																																			
Oral Reading																																			
Lip Movements																																			
Other Skills (Specify)																																			
ATTITUDES AND INTERESTS																																			
Selects and reads books voluntarily																																			
Reads in a wide variety of subjects																																			
Enjoys listening to stories																																			
Has a library card																																			
Uses the library																																			
Has books of his own																																			
Takes care of books he reads																																			

Directions. For each of the reading skills listed, indicate each student's ability to perform the skill by recording a + in the appropriate box to indicate ability to perform the skill and a - to indicate inability to perform the skill.

INDIANAPOLIS PUBLIC SCHOOLS

MODEL SCHOOL NO. ______

NAME	DATE OF BIRTH	ROOM NUMBER	TRANSFER STUDENT MO / DAY / YEAR	READING LEVEL / DATE
			/ /	

PROBLEMS | **HAS ATTENDED**

1	LANGUAGE	4	SPEECH	7	VISION	10	ATTENDANCE	13		16	KINDERGARTEN
2	BEHAVIOR	5	COORDINATION	8	LEFT HANDED	11	REVERSALS	14		17	HEADSTART
3	EMOTIONAL	6	HEARING	9	RIGHT HANDED	12		15		18	

PRIMARY

T19486X

IDENTIFIES LIKES - DIFFERENCES
- ☐ 1. SHAPES
- ☐ 2. SIZES
- ☐ 3. LETTERS
- ☐ 4. DIRECTION
- ☐ 5. COLORS
- ☐ 6. SOUNDS
- ☐ 7. IDENTIFIES NAME
- ☐ 8. IDENTIFIES MAIN CHARACTERS
- ☐ 9. INTERPRETS PICTURES
- ☐ 10.
- ☐ 11.

WORD RECOGNITION
- ☐ 1. GENERAL SOUNDS
- ☐ 2. RHYMING WORDS
- ☐ 3. PICTURE DISCRIMINATION
- ☐ 4. LETTER DISCRIMINATION

WORD RECOGNITION (CONTINUED)
- ☐ 5. WORD DISCRIMINATION
- ☐ 6. INITIAL CONSONANTS
- ☐ 7. MEDIAL CONSONANTS
- ☐ 8. FINAL CONSONANTS
- ☐ 9. CONSONANT BLENDS (INITIAL-FINAL)
- ☐ 10. SHORT VOWELS
- ☐ 11. PLURAL WORDS (ENDINGS S OR ES)
- ☐ 12. COMPOUND WORDS
- ☐ 13. SIGHT WORDS, PP - P
- ☐ 14. SIGHT WORDS, 1ST
- ☐ 15. SIGHT WORDS, 2ND
- ☐ 16. SIGHT WORDS, 3RD & 4TH

COMPREHENSION
- ☐ 1. LOCATING SPECIFIC INFORMATION
- ☐ 2. NOTING DETAILS

COMPREHENSION (CONTINUED)
- ☐ 3. READING FOR DETAILS
- ☐ 4. RECALLING SEQUENCE
- ☐ 5. ORGANIZING TO SHOW SEQUENCE
- ☐ 6. MAIN IDEA
- ☐ 7. RECOGNIZING EMOTIONAL ATTITUDES
- ☐ 8. SYNONYMS
- ☐ 9. MULTIPLE MEANINGS
- ☐ 10. HOMONYMS

STUDY SKILLS
- ☐ 1. LEFT TO RIGHT PROGRESSION
- ☐ 2. EYE-HAND COORDINATION
- ☐ 3. FOLLOWING DIRECTIONS
- ☐ 4. ALPHABETIZING LETTERS
- ☐ 5. ALPHABETIZING WORDS
- ☐ 6. TABLE OF CONTENTS
- ☐ 7. TELEPHONE DIRECTORY

STUDY SKILLS (CONTINUED)
- ☐ 8. MAPS
- ☐ 9. GLOBES
- ☐ 10. ORAL READING - LIP MOVEMENT

ATTITUDES - INTERESTS
- ☐ 1. SELECTS, READS BOOKS VOLUNTARILY
- ☐ 2. READS IN VARIETY OF SUBJECTS
- ☐ 3. ENJOYS LISTENING TO STORIES
- ☐ 4. HAS A LIBRARY CARD
- ☐ 5. USES THE LIBRARY
- ☐ 6. HAS BOOKS OF HIS OWN
- ☐ 7. TAKES CARE OF BOOKS HE READS
- ☐ 8.

INTERMEDIATE

WORD RECOGNITION
- ☐ 1. SIGHT WORDS
- ☐ 2. IDENTIFIES CONSONANTS & VOWELS
- ☐ 3. MEDIAL CONSONANTS
- ☐ 4. CONSONANT BLENDS
- ☐ 5. CONSONANT DIGRAPHS
- ☐ 6. CONSONANT VARIANTS
- ☐ 7. SCHWA
- ☐ 8. LONG VOWELS, FINAL "E"
- ☐ 9. LONG VOWELS, OPEN SYLLABLES
- ☐ 10. VOWEL DIGRAPHS
- ☐ 11. VOWEL DIPHTHONGS
- ☐ 12. PLURAL WORDS ENDING S OR ES
- ☐ 13. PLURAL WORDS ENDING IN Y
- ☐ 14. PLURALS, DIFFERENT WORD FORM
- ☐ 15. PLURALS, UNCHANGED FORMS
- ☐ 16. PLURALS, RULES
- ☐ 17. COMPOUND WORDS
- ☐ 18. CONTRACTIONS
- ☐ 19. SUFFIXES, FORM
- ☐ 20. SUFFIXES, MEANINGS
- ☐ 21. PREFIXES, FORM
- ☐ 22. PREFIXES, MEANINGS

WORD RECOGNITION (CONTINUED)
- ☐ 23. POSSESSIVES, SINGULAR
- ☐ 24. POSSESSIVES, PLURAL
- ☐ 25. SYLLABICATION PROCEDURES
- ☐ 26. SYLLABICATION, RULES
- ☐ 27. ACCENT PLACEMENT
- ☐ 28. ACCENT SHIFTING
- ☐ 29. ROOT WORDS
- ☐ 30. INFLECTIONAL ENDINGS
- ☐ 31. WORD PATTERNS
- ☐ 32. ABBREVIATIONS
- ☐ 33. WORD IDENTIFICATION
- ☐ 34. WORD MEANINGS
- ☐ 35. MULTIPLE MEANINGS
- ☐ 36. SIGHT WORDS BELOW 3RD
- ☐ 37. SIGHT WORDS, INT. (4-5)
- ☐ 38. SIGHT WORDS, ADV. (6-7)

COMPREHENSION
- ☐ 1. READING FOR DETAILS
- ☐ 2. RECALLING SEQUENCE
- ☐ 3. ORGANIZING TO SHOW SEQUENCE
- ☐ 4. MAIN IDEA
- ☐ 5. RECOGNIZING EMOTIONAL ATTITUDES

COMPREHENSION (CONTINUED)
- ☐ 6. INTERPRETATION OF FACTS
- ☐ 7. SEEING RELATIONSHIPS
- ☐ 8. CHARACTERIZATION
- ☐ 9. PREDICTING OUTCOMES
- ☐ 10. FORMING SENSORY IMAGES
- ☐ 11. DISTINGUISHING FACT & FANTASY
- ☐ 12. DISTINGUISHING FACT & OPINION
- ☐ 13. SYNONYMS
- ☐ 14. ANTONYMS
- ☐ 15. MULTIPLE MEANINGS
- ☐ 16. HOMONYMS

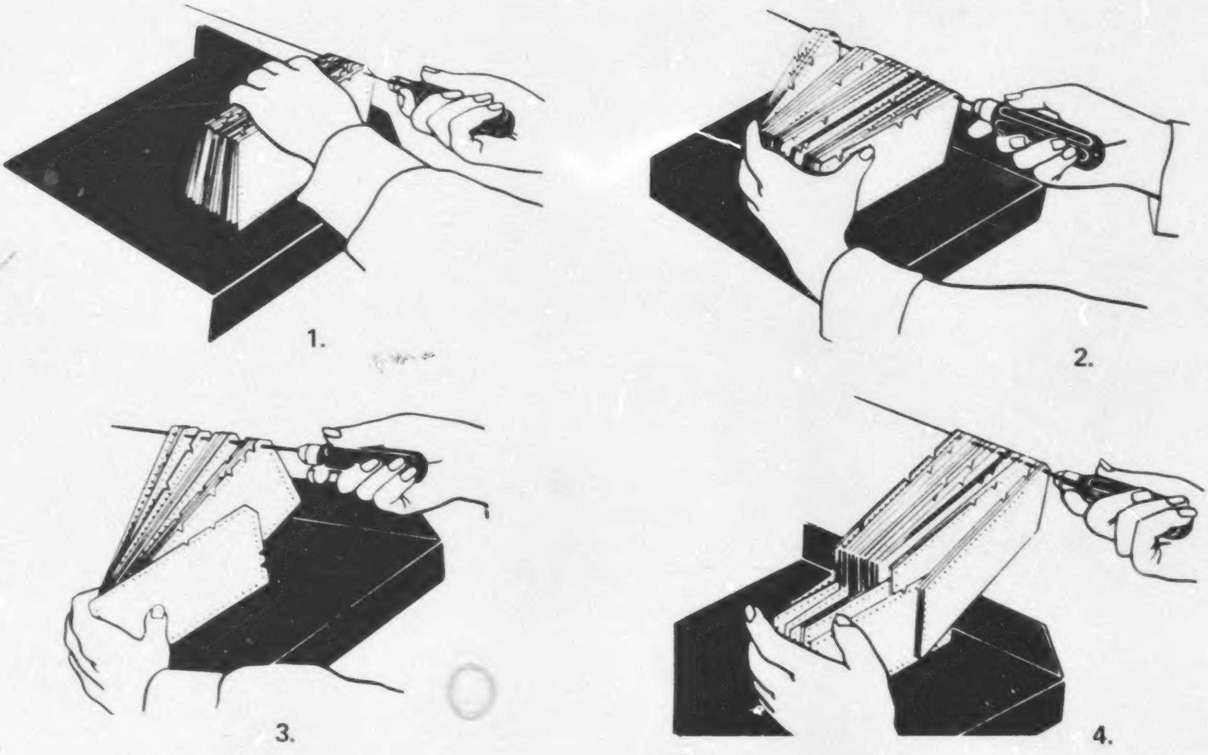
STUDY SKILLS
- ☐ 1. FOLLOWING DIRECTIONS
- ☐ 2. ALPHABETIZING WORDS
- ☐ 3. DICTIONARY, DEFINITIONS
- ☐ 4. DICTIONARY, GUIDE WORDS
- ☐ 5. DICTIONARY, VARIANT WORD MEANINGS
- ☐ 6. DICTIONARY, DIACRITICAL MARKINGS
- ☐ 7. ENCYCLOPEDIA, GUIDE WORDS
- ☐ 8. ENCYCLOPEDIA, INDEX
- ☐ 9. ENCYCLOPEDIA, KEY TOPICS
- ☐ 10. MAPS

STUDY SKILLS (CONTINUED)
- ☐ 11. GLOBES
- ☐ 12. DIAGRAMS
- ☐ 13. GRAPHS
- ☐ 14. MODELS
- ☐ 15. OUTLINING
- ☐ 16. CLASSIFYING

OTHER SKILLS
- ☐ 1. LOCATING SPECIFIC INFORMATION
- ☐ 2. NOTING DETAILS
- ☐ 3.
- ☐ 4.

ATTITUDES - INTERESTS
- ☐ 1. SELECTS & READS BOOKS VOLUNTARILY
- ☐ 2. READS IN VARIETY OF SUBJECTS
- ☐ 3. ENJOYS LISTENING TO STORIES
- ☐ 4. HAS A LIBRARY CARD
- ☐ 5. USES THE LIBRARY
- ☐ 6. HAS BOOKS OF HIS OWN
- ☐ 7. TAKES CARE OF BOOKS
- ☐ 8.

PRIM. COMPREHENSION | PRIM. STUDY SKILLS | ATTITUDES - INTERESTS | INT. WORD RECOGNITION | INT. COMPREHENSION



1.

2.

3.

4.

Figure 4.

of being able to record their own progress in reading and, thus, the recording can have motivational value. Second, if students are able to work with the kinds of records forms the teacher develops, it is possible for them to see in that checklist the kinds of skills that the teacher hopes they will develop over the next few weeks or the next semester. There is considerable evidence that learning is improved when students are aware of the particular objectives or the particular skills the teacher wants them to learn. So, not only does the teacher get students involved in a process that they enjoy and that gives them satisfaction, but the process can also improve the instructional program.

C. **REPORTING RESULTS.** A final consideration in the effective management of the reading program is the process of reporting results to various interested individuals and groups – students, parents, future teachers of the students and school administrators.

1. **Reporting to Students.** One of the important factors in effective teaching is that the learner have regular feedback on the success of his efforts. Accordingly, the teacher should report on a regular basis the results of a student's efforts. To achieve maximum efficiency, this reporting requires more than simple grades for broad curriculum areas. Rather, the teacher should provide the student with information relative to the accomplishment of specific program objectives.

As discussed previously, one way to accomplish this is to involve the student directly in the record keeping process by having him keep his own progress records. A second approach that can be utilized is to provide the student with a regular report. The report should include the specific objectives that the student has been working on and an indication of whether or not the objectives have been accomplished. Most systems include a duplicated form on which the teacher need only check off the appropriate items, thus saving the time that would be required to complete a narrative report.

2. **Reporting to Parents.** Schools have long recognized the responsibility for reporting to parents. Unfortunately, this reporting has generally been limited to letter grades that have only comparative value. Also, the grades provided are related only to broad curriculum areas and do not indicate the specific program objectives that are being pursued within a subject or content area. If parents are to have an adequate notion of what the school is attempting to teach the child, then it is essential that they be provided a report that gives much more information than the typical student report card. More and more school systems are adopting reporting procedures that include a supplement to the regular report card listing specific program objectives and those objectives the student can perform. It is obvious that the teacher's class records become an essential resource in providing the information for such expanded reporting procedures. Some systems even include a format in which a copy of the teacher's record is created as she records her own information. The copy is then included in the student's regular report card.

In addition to more detailed written reports, schools are including more parent conferences in their reporting efforts. Again, however, if these conferences are to be meaningful, they should include a discussion of how well the student is progressing in terms of specific program objectives. In such conferences, the teacher might use actual individual student checklists as a basis for the conference. Certainly, information that might be contained in a Student Notebook or Student Work Folder could be used in parent-teacher conferences.

3. **Reporting to Teachers and Administrators.** A final reporting responsibility that the teacher has is to succeeding teachers of his students and to school administrators. The need

to provide information about a student's progress for his next teacher(s) should be obvious. If accurate individual records such as The Individual Student Checklist or Key Sort Card have been kept, it is a simple matter to pass those records on to the next teacher. By having such information available, the teacher has a significant head start on his needs assessment for the new school year. Not only can he begin instruction almost immediately, but that instruction can continue from where the child is in the instruction program.

Among other kinds of information that the present teacher would also want to pass along to the student's subsequent teacher is information about interests and attitudes. Any indication the present teacher might have concerning the methods or learning mode by which the student seems to learn most efficiently should be given to his new teacher. In order to keep the reporting of this information from becoming a major burden, it is again suggested that some type of standard form be prepared.

Administrators also require information on program accomplishments. If they are to provide adequate support for the instructional program, they must have information on program effectiveness. In order to know the kinds of materials that may be needed or the kinds of inservice training to plan, administrators must have some indication of the program areas where expected or desired results are not being accomplished. Unlike teachers and parents, however, administrators need information relative to the achievement of groups of students rather than individual students. Rather than reporting which particular program objectives an individual student has accomplished and which he has not, the report to administrators should reflect the number, or per cent, of students in a given group who have accomplished a particular objective. By comparing such numbers for all objectives, the administrator can determine the relative strengths and weaknesses of the program. By comparing such results from one year to the next, the administrator can gain an indication of the longitudinal results of the program.

Again, if the process of providing such information is to be efficient, a prepared form should be provided. One such form is included in Figure 5.

D. **SELECTED READING MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS.** A number of commercially prepared reading management systems have been developed. These systems are designed to provide the resources required by the teacher to carry out an effective and efficient individualized reading program. The most common elements included in the systems are: (1) criterion referenced tests covering each of the program objectives, (2) individual and group record forms, (3) a filing system for organizing instructional materials and (4) a cross reference to strategies for teaching program objectives.

Figure 5. YEAR END REPORT FORM

School ______________________________ Date ______________

System ____
(city) (county)

Teacher ______________________________ Grade(s) ______________

Number of children ______________ Number of individual checklists prepared ______________

Days of instruction per child ______________________________

Principal or administrator in charge ______________________________

Skills *Primary*	*Number Correct on PreTest*	*Number Correct on Post Test*	*Total Gain*
1. WORD RECOGNITION – Auditory Discrimination – General Sounds			
2. WORD RECOGNITION – Auditory Discrimination – Rhyming Words			
3. WORD RECOGNITION – Visual Discrimination – Picture Discrimination			
4. WORD RECOGNITION – Visual Discrimination – Letter Discrimination			
5. WORD RECOGNITION – Visual Discrimination – Word Discrimination			
6. WORD RECOGNITION – Phonetic Analysis – Initial Consonants			
7. WORD RECOGNITION – Phonetic Analysis – Median Consonants			
8. WORD RECOGNITION – Phonetic Analysis – Final Consonants			
9.a. WORD RECOGNITION – Phonetic Analysis – Consonant Blends			
9.b. WORD RECOGNITION – Phonetic Analysis – Final Blends			

Selected Management Systems.

Criterion Reading. Random House, 201 E. South Street, New York 10022

Diagnosis: An Instrument Aid. Science Research Associates, 259 East Erie Street, Chicago, Illinois, 60611

The Fountain Valley Reading Program. Zweig Associates, Huntington Beach, California 92648

Individualized Direction In Reading. Steck-Vaughn Co., P. O. Box 2028L, Austin, Texas 78767

The Power Reading System. Winston Press, 25 Groveland Terrace, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55403

The Ransom Program. Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Sand Hill Road, Menlo Park, California 94025

Wisconsin Design for Reading Skill Development. Interpretive Scoring Systems, 4401 W. 76th Street, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55435

21 Evaluation of Students' Reading Abilities and the Total Reading Program

Three important categories are involved in evaluating a reading program: (1) evaluation of the individual child, (2) evaluation of the classroom and (3) evaluation of the reading program for the school building and/or the entire school system.

Most schools use achievement test scores to measure the growth made from year to year. If a school system uses this technique, it is important to use the same test or an alternate form of that test so that the scores will be comparable. For students that are performing near their expected potential, the comparison of this year's score to the previous year's score will indicate the amount of growth made by that child on the skills measured by that particular test.

For those students that have a discrepancy between their potential and performance, more diagnostic information will be needed at the beginning of the school year, and constant assessment through informal measures are necessary. If a child has several needs, the teacher should plan a program for that child and proceed. Checklists can be made for each child, and those children with similar needs can be grouped together and taught that particular skill (personalizing instruction). Keeping in mind that there is a discrepancy between "what should be" and "what is," if the discrepancy is less at the end of the year than it was at the beginning, the evaluation for that child would be positive. It is important to remember that a teacher may not be able to teach the child everything that he needs within the year; it is not likely that the discrepancy between potential and performance occurred over a short period of time, and the cure probably will not "close the gap" overnight.

The second category is evaluating the classroom for the year and measuring group improvement. A group diagnostic test, such as the Stanford Diagnostic Reading Test (SDRT), is more appropriate than a survey test. A test such as the SDRT allows the teacher to evaluate more areas than just vocabulary and comprehension. To evaluate the progress of the group, the mean score for the group is determined in each subtest and compared to the previous year's scores. This gives an estimate as to how much growth the class has made and also gives the teacher an opportunity to make some evaluations about his teaching. He may find that one area did not show as much growth as others and that he needs to spend more time teaching that particular skill.

Classroom evaluation and teaching evaluation should not be measured by tests alone. A teacher may not have taught all the skills as well as he wanted; yet, he may have instilled considerable motivation in students to read independently. The number of books and magazines read by individuals is an indication of an effective reading program. When evaluating the classroom reading program, it is also important to consider the amount of time spent in the teaching of reading. The teacher that has children working at their instructional level, is spending time teaching various reading skills that the children need and who is also allowing students time during school to read for pleasure should have a very fine program.

To evaluate a school's growth in reading, the mean scores of subtests should be figured to see if any one area shows a considerable deficiency or strength as opposed to the other areas. This allows a school or system to determine if it has a balanced program. For example, subtests that measure word attack skills may show on the average much more growth than the visual skills. Again, the reading program is out of balance and needs careful study.

The following checklist may be helpful in evaluating the classroom, school or entire system. When this checklist is used for evaluating the classroom, it is suggested that the principal, the classroom teacher and at least one other professional person mark the checklist.

SURVEY OF READING PROGRAM (GRADES 1-6)*

Basic Components of Reading Program	Strong Component (8 pts.)	Good (6 pts.)	Fair (4 pts.)	Needs to be Improved (2 pts.)	Unable to Answer (0 pts.)
Basal Reading Program					
Word Recognition					
Literal Comprehension					
Inferential Comprehension					
Literature Program					
Personalized Reading					
Supplementary Materials					
Meeting Particular Needs of Children					
Meeting Individual Needs					
Superior Reader					
Average Reader					
Disabled Reader					
Diagnostic Services					
Support System for Teachers					
Administration					
Consultants					
Inservice Courses					
Materials					

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* Adapted from Rauch, Sidney J., "How to Evaluate a Reading Program," *The Reading Teacher,* Dec., 1970, 24, 244-250.

After using the Survey of the Reading Program for each classroom in the building or school system, figure the mean for each category and use the following grid for summarizing your reading program. This should help to evaluate the reading program and help make the appropriate decisions as to what to do to improve the reading program.

Grid for Summarizing the Survey of the Reading Program

Functions Category	Program in General	Meeting Particular Needs of Children	Support System for Teachers
Class			
Building			
System			

To evaluate an individual's reading needs, it is important to look for patterns of strengths and weaknesses in the various reading skills. To evaluate a classroom, it is important to compare mean scores of the various subtests of skills taught throughout the year. This will help a teacher evaluate his teaching techniques. Low or high mean scores on various subtests for an entire building or school system may indicate an imbalance in the school's reading program. The Survey of the Reading Program should also prove to be helpful.

References for Program Evaluation.

Carlson, Thorsten R. *Administrators and Reading.* New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, Inc., 1972.

Smith, Carl B. *Treating Reading Difficulties: The Role of the Principal, Teacher, Specialist, Administrator.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Printing Office, 1970.

Glossary of Reading Terms

Accent – The relative degree of breath force with which a syllable is spoken.

Achievement Age – The performance level for a given achievement test in which the performance level is stated in terms of the chronological age group for which this performance level is average.

Achievement Test – A test which measures the degree to which a person has achieved in a given subject field or in the general aspects of schooling.

Age Norms – Values representing average performance for persons according to chronological age.

Alternate-form Reliability – The correlation between results on alternate forms of a test.

Anecdotal Report – A written record of observed behavior.

Arithmetic Mean – The sum of a set of test scores divided by the number of scores.

Auditory Discrimination – The ability to differentiate between sounds.

Basal Reader Approach – A reading program in which instructional content and methodology are determined through the use of a series of basal readers.

Battery – A group of tests that have been standardized on the same population and whose results are of value individually, in combination and/or totally.

Centile – A scaled score below which are any given percentage of cases.

Checklist – Words, phrases or statements to be checked according to directions by an observer.

Cloze Procedure – A testing method in which words from a passage are deleted and underlined spaces substituted. Subjects attempt to fill in the spaces with the correct words.

Consonant – A speech sound that is characterized by a modification of the discharged breath by the lips, teeth, tongue or palates.

Consonant Blend – The combination of two or more consonant sounds without intervening vowel sounds.

Consonant Digraph – Two consonants which are sounded as a single sound.

Content Area Approach – A reading method in which reading instruction is provided as a part of the instructional program in one or more of the content subjects, e.g., science, social science.

Correlation – The degree of relationship between two or more variables.

Criterion Referenced Tests – An assessment technique deliberately constructed to measure data in terms of specific performance standards.

Decile – One of the nine percentile points that divide a rank distribution into 10 per cent of all cases.

Derived Form – A root word plus one or more prefixes and/or suffixes.

Diagnostic Test – A test designed to locate specific strengths and/or weaknesses of a person.

Digraph – Two successive letters which are sounded as a single sound.

Diphthong – Two vowels which are combined to form a single blended sound.

Dyslexia – Language disorder in which the ability to read, write and spell are not commensurate with intellectual ability.

Equivalent Form – Two or more forms of a test with similar content and item difficulty that will yield scores with similar averages and of similar variability for a given group.

Experience Approach – A reading approach in which the instructional program is based on real experiences the children have had.

Factor Analysis – One of several methods of analyzing the intercorrelations among a set of variables.

Frequency Distribution – A tabulation of scores from high to low or from low to high showing the number of persons who obtained each score or whose score fell in the group of scores.

Frustration Reading Level – The level at which the child reads with more than five word recognition errors in 100 words (below 95 per cent) with below 50 per cent comprehension.

Grade Equivalent – A score based upon the grade (year and month) achieved by average individuals in that grade level.

Grapheme – A functional graphic unit not able to be divided; the smallest written unit.

Hawthorne Effect – The situation in which the fact that a person knows he is involved in an experiment or receiving special treatment will affect his performance.

Independent Reading Level – The level at which a child can read with no more than one word recognition error in each 100 words (99 per cent) with at least 90 per cent comprehension.

Inflected Form – A root or derived word to which an inflectional ending has been added, i.e., -s, -es, -'s, -ed, -est.

Instructional Reading Level – The level at which the child can read with no more than five word recognition errors in 100 words (95 per cent) with at least 80 per cent comprehension.

Intelligence Quotient – The ratio of a person's mental age to the mental age normal for his chronological age.

Intonation – Structure or pattern of pitch.

Inventory Test – A test designed to appraise an individual's status in a particular area, e.g., attitudes, interests, skills.

Item Analysis – Any one of a number of processes used to assess the discrimination characteristics (difficulty value) of a test item as it correlates with some criterion.

Kuden-Richardson Formula(s) – A formula used to estimate the reliability of a test on the basis of information about the individual items or the mean score, standard deviation and a number of items in the test.

Listening Level – The level at which the child can comprehend 75 per cent of the material read to him by the examiner.

Locally Constructed Test – A test designed and constructed by local persons rather than a commercial test publisher. The test may or may not have norms.

Median – The middle score in a ranked distribution of scores.

Mental Age – The chronological age for which a given performance on an intelligence test is average or normal.

Mode – The most frequent score in a distribution of scores.

Morpheme – An indivisible meaning unit in the structure of words, e.g., cat, re-, -ed, -est.

Normal Distribution – A symmetrical distribution of scores about the mean based on the assumption that variations from the mean are by chance. In graphic form the distribution takes on a distinctive bell-shaped curve.

Norms – Test performance of specific groups described in statistical terms and often assumed to be representative of some larger population.

Objective Test – A test on which scorers cannot possibly have different opinions as to whether responses are right or wrong.

Percentile – Any one of the 99 point scores that divide a ranked distribution of scores into groups each containing 1 per cent of the scores.

Personality Test – A test designed to assess one or more of the aspects that constitute the mental, emotional and temperamental makeup of an individual.

Phoneme – The smallest significant unit of sound. In English there are about 45 phonemes, 21 consonants, 9 simple vowels; the balance are combinations.

Phonemics – The systematic use of speech sound in a specific language.

Phonics – That aspect of reading instruction in which the speech sounds of letters and groups of letters are taught.

Phonic Analysis – The process of sounding letters and groups of letters to determine how a word is pronounced.

Phonetics (phonology) – The field or discipline concerned with speech sounds.

Power Test – A test designed to assess performance level rather than speed of response.

Practice Effect – The effect of a previous experience with a test on a later examination on the same or similar test.

Primary Accent – The syllable in a word receiving the main accent.

Profile -- The results of one or more tests or subtests of a single test presented in graphic form; usually bar or line graphs.

Prognosis Test – A test designed to assess skills and abilities that are prerequisite for success in a particular field in order to be able to predict future success or failure in that field.

Projective Technique – A technique for assessing a subject's personality by having him respond to a series of stimuli such as ink blots, pictures, unfinished sentences, etc.

Quartile – Any one of the three points that divide distribution of scores into four equal groups, each group containing 25 per cent of the scores.

Questionnaire – A list of questions requiring "yes" – "no," numerical and/or narrative responses. Analysis is conducted by classifying the responses and computing the percentage of subjects that respond according to each classification.

Random Sample – A sample drawn according to the law of chance in such a way that every member of the population has an equal chance of being drawn.

Range – The difference between the highest and lowest scores in a distribution of scores.

Raw Score – The unconverted and uninterpreted quantitative results of a test scored according to specific criteria.

Readability Level – The reading difficulty of reading material expressed in terms of the grade level at which the normal or average individual would be expected to read the material successfully.

Readiness – A condition of adequacy with reference to the elements of the activity to be undertaken.

Readiness Test – A test designed to assess the ability to engage in a new or different type of activity.

Reading – The process of perceiving and understanding symbols in relation to the meaning they carry.

Reliability – The degree to which a test is consistent in measuring whatever it was designed to measure.

Remedial Reading – Reading instructions designed for specific or general reading defects and generally given outside the regular reading program.

Representative Sample – A sample that matches the population it represents with respect to those characteristics that are considered important for the particular purpose for which the investigation is being made.

Scholastic Aptitude – The combination of native and acquired abilities that is needed to do school work.

Secondary Accent – A syllable in a word receiving relatively less accent than the primary accent.

Sight Words – Words which a child can immediately recognize when they are presented to him.

Sociometry – The assessment of the interpersonal relationships that exist among members of a group.

Spearman-Brown Formula – A formula for estimating the reliability for an entire test on the basis of the correlation between two halves of the test.

Split-half Coefficient – (See Spearman-Brown Formula)

Standard Deviation – A measure used to express the variability (the extent of deviations from the mean) of a set of scores.

Standard Error – An estimate of the amount by which an individual's obtained score differs from his hypothetical true score.

Standardized Test – A test for which norms have been developed according to prescribed conditions.

Stratified Sample – A sample in which cases are drawn according to predetermined controls, e.g., geographic region, economic background, grade, sex, etc.

Structural Analysis – A word analysis technique in which the reader identifies meaningful units within the words, i.e., roots, suffixes, prefixes, syllables, inflectional endings, and relates them to the total word.

Survey Test – A test designed to assess general achievement for the purpose of establishing group status.

Syllable – A pronunciation or written unit of a word in which a vowel alone or in combination with one or more consonants is found.

Test-retest Cofficient – A coefficient of reliability based on the correlation of scores obtained on administrations of the same test. A short interval is usually provided between tests.

True Score – A score hypothetically free of errors of measurement.

Validity – The extent to which a test measures the thing it is intended to measure.

Visual Discrimination – The ability to discern differences and likenesses between visual patterns, e.g., letter forms, word pictures, geometric designs.

Voiced Sound – A sound in which air is forced through the vocal cords causing them to vibrate.

Voiceless Sound – A speech sound which is produced without vibrating the vocal cords.

Vowel – A speech sound that is produced by a comparatively free passage of air from the lungs through the lips without intervening stops or obstructions.

Vowel Digraph – Two vowels which are sounded as a single sound.

Word Analysis – A technique of analyzing a word according to its structural and/or phonetic parts.

Word Recognition – The process of identifying words according to any one or a combination of the word recognition techniques, e.g., phonetic analysis, structural analysis.

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American Publishing Company, 55 West 42nd St., New York, N.Y. 10001

Audio-Visual Research, 523 S. Plymouth Court, Chicago, Ill. 60605

Barnell Loft, Ltd., 111 S. Centre Ave., Rockville Centre, N.Y. 11570

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Better Reading Foundation, Inc., 52 Vanderbilt Ave., New York, N.Y. 10001

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